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A Study of the Leadership Training Needs as Perceived by the Secondary School Principals of Fiji

Nemani W. Tausere
Andrews University

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Tausere, Nemani Wapole, Ph.D.

Andrews University, 1990

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING NEEDS AS PERCEIVED BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF FIJI

by

Nemani W. Tausere

Chairman: Edward A. Streeter

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

Title: A STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING NEEDS AS PERCEIVED BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF FIJI

Name of Researcher: Nemani W. Tausere

Name and degree of faculty advisor: Edward Streeter, Ed.D.

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Problem

If schools are to improve and become more accountable to the community they serve, relevant leadership training programs that help principals to function more effectively need to be provided. It is important that such training programs address the problems and needs of the principals. The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the leadership training needs as perceived by the secondary-school principals of Fiji.

Method

A descriptive survey design was utilized for this study. The Leadership Training Needs questionnaire was sent to all 140 secondary-school principals in Fiji to survey (1) their perceived needs for leadership training, (2) past sources of leadership expertise, (3) sources of assistance for principals, and (4) demographic characteristics. The 110 completed returns were processed by the Andrews University Center for Statistical Services. The SPSS computer program was used in the analysis which yielded frequency, percentages of responses, and mean weight for each of the eight categories of demographic data.

Findings

1. Educational authors studying school leadership since the early 1970s generally agreed that effective schools were the result of the activities of effective principals who demonstrated strong instructional leadership, created positive school climate conducive to learning, and knew how to manage time and people efficiently and effectively.

2. Secondary-school principals in Fiji expressed high priority need for additional leadership training in the skills of instructional leadership and human relations/staff development.

3. The principals who most often expressed the need for additional leadership training were those who were (1) under 40 years of age; (2) Fijian; (3) assigned to medium-sized schools; (4) in charge of secondary high schools; and (5) who had the most recent educational training.

4. Secondary-school principals of Fiji reported that on-the-job experience, teaching experience, and deputy-principalship were their most valuable sources of leadership expertise.

5. In-service training and taking courses at colleges or universities were seen by the Fiji principals as effective sources of assistance in improving leadership skills.

Conclusion

Secondary-school principals in Fiji are not satisfied with their present level of leadership expertise. While they consider their experience as administrators to be their most valuable source of leadership expertise, they look toward in-service training, and college and university course work as potentially effective means of improving leadership skills.

Andrews University
School of Education

A STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP TRAINING NEEDS AS PERCEIVED BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF FIJI

A Dissertation
Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

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APPROVAL BY THE COMMITTEE:

Chair: Edward A. Streeter

Member: David S. Penner

Member: Asa C. Thoresen

External: Russell L. Staples

Graduate Programs Director: Jerome D. Thayer

Dean, School of Education: Warren E. Minder

March 16, 1990
Date Approved

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In order to meet the challenges of bringing about excellence in education, schools need effective leadership (Ford, 1987). Asick (1984) pointed out that without effective leadership there is no effective school; or, as Lachance (1984) stated, "There must be an effective principal if there is to be an effective school" (p. 47).

The school-effectiveness movement and its supporters proclaimed that the principal was the key component of productive schools. According to Fairman and Clark (1985), Duttweiler (1986), and Niehouse (1988a), the leadership role played by the principal was crucial for educational excellence.

Dufour (1986) and Dogget (1987) observed that one of the most consistent findings of the effective schools research was that effective schools had strong principals who took an active interest in instructional leadership. In one of the earliest and most widely cited studies, Weber (1971) identified strong leadership as one of eight "success factors" that distinguish successful schools.

Studies by the New York State Department of Education (1974), Armor et al. (1976), Trisman et al. (1975), Austin (1978), Brookover and Lezotte (1979), California State Department of Education (1980), Hager and Scar (1983), and Mendez (1986) are just a sampling of the research that has concurred with this notion of the critical importance of the principal acting as a strong educational leader in an effective school.

Conant (1960), Boyer (1983), and Weldy (1986) agreed that the difference between a good school and a poor school was often the difference between a good or a poor principal. Jackson, (cited in Weldy, 1979) said that, "The principal is the motivational yeast; how high the student and teachers rise to their challenge is the principal's responsibility." Weldy (1979) agreed with this perception of the principal, who, he said, was "the most important, most influential, and most powerful person in the school" (p. ix).

According to Couture (1987), the principal, who was charged with the responsibilities of leading, planning, organizing, maintaining, and controlling, should be diverse, sensitive, interested, and knowledgeable. For, as Goldhammer et al. (1971) had observed, principals stand close to the center of the educational process. They are in direct contact with teachers, parents, and pupils. They manage the processes through which goals are

effected, policies are implemented, and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with school programs is secured.

The 1974 Senate Select Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity noted:

> In many ways the school principal is the most important and influential individual in any school. He is the person responsible for all of the activities that occur in and around the school building. It is his leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become. He is the main link between the school and the community and the way he performs in that capacity largely determines the attitudes of students and parents about the school. If a school is a vibrant, innovative, child-centered place; if it has a reputation for excellence in teaching; if students are performing to the best of their ability one can almost always point to the principal's leadership as the key to success. (Smith, et al., 1981, p. 9)

The principal is the main agent for change in the educational institution (Tye, 1972; Aquila & Galovic, 1988). As Kramer (1973) pointed out, the principal can no longer be simply the guardian of the status quo. As social and technological change accelerates in society, so does the demand for more sophisticated skills of leadership increase.

Sarason (1971) and Blome and James (1985) pointed out that any proposal for change that intends to alter the quality of life in the school depends primarily on the principal. Principals need enlightened leadership skills and personal qualities to provide direction and impetus to the educational goals of their schools.

If the goals of a school and its staff are to be realized, the educational institution must have qualified leadership. For "the key to a successful school is an effective principal" (NASSP, 1982, p. v). On the principal rests the ultimate responsibility for developing effective schools and implementing reform legislation (Calabrese, 1986).

What, then, constitutes appropriate education leadership roles for school administrators? Thompson and Cooley (1984), who saw leadership as an administrative skill, stated that leadership involved two basic components: the skill to change and the talent to motivate--the motivation of subordinates to satisfy organizational objectives and the identification of problem areas and the initiation of solutions to alleviate problems.

McCall (1986) and Pinkney (1987) also concurred that leadership is a skill that could be taught and learned through formal training and practical experiences. This reinforced what Morphet, Johns and Reller (1982) pointed out, that leadership skills or competencies could be acquired through appropriate programs of learning experience. This emphasized the importance of preparation programs for school administrators.

Based on his research and experience as an educator and manager, Niehouse (1988a) defined leadership as "the

process of attempting to influence the behavior of one or more persons toward reaching a goal or accomplishing a task" (p. 52). He explained that leadership is a strategic skill. He concluded:

> Leadership is not a panacea. . . . Leadership is not wondrous magic; it is a strategic skill--a skill composed of a few basic concepts that anyone can learn and apply; a skill that can facilitate your job and get more things done; a skill that can motivate people to their best efforts. (p. 71)

To become effective school administrators, it is essential for principals to acquire and develop leadership skills. This process needs to be ongoing. Weldy (1986) stressed that principals must never stop learning about being principals if they are to be good administrators (p. 13).

If schools are to improve and become more accountable to students, parents, and taxpayers, relevant leadership training programs which help principals to function more effectively need to be provided (Pinkney, 1987). It is important that such training programs address the problems and needs of the principals. What they perceive to be their leadership training needs, therefore, is vital in the planning and conducting of relevant leadership training programs.

Fiji's Minister of Education, Mr. Filipe Bole, in an address to the Fijian Teachers Association on January 12, 1989, stressed the importance of having trained

graduates to fill posts of principals, deputy principals, assistant principals, and heads of departments. He pointed out that in 1988 "about 100 of these posts were held by undergraduates who would be eligible for inservice training to obtain suitable qualifications for these posts" (Government's plan, 1989). He further added that those in positions of reponsibility would come under the close scrutiny of the Ministry of Education field staff, who would be required to submit twice-yearly reports on all those in leadership posts.

The Fiji Ministry of Education recognizes the vital role of trained leadership in schools and is determined to take appropriate measures to help school administrators become more effective in their leadership role.

Statement of the Problem

The literature on educational leadership is replete with varied and sometimes conflicting definitions of the word leadership. It is essential, therefore, in a study such as this that clarification be sought in order to explain what is meant by the term leadership as used in the context of educational administration.

The demand for qualified and effective leadership in educational institutions of Third World countries is generally difficult to meet. This is due to the lack of persons trained for such purpose. Fiji, a Third World

country in the South Pacific and the subject of this study, is a case in point (Government's plan, 1989).

For positions in school administration such as principals or headmasters (or mistresses), experience has revealed that usually it is a person's seniority or years of experience rather than administrative training that plays a major role in deciding who fills the position. Such a practice tends only toward maintaining the status quo and does not encourage the growth and development of a healthy and innovative school system.

As the country makes progress towards higher standards of education, the demand for trained school administrators also increases. In Fiji, some elements of educational administration are offered in various programs, but it is not known if these experiences are effectively meeting the needs of school administrators. An investigation of the perceived needs of secondary-school principals is a progressive step towards the provision of appropriate types of leadership training programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify and describe the leadership training needs of secondary-school principals in a Third World setting. The study addresses the basic question: What do secondary principals in Fiji perceive to be their significant needs for leadership

training? In addition, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. What are the leadership qualities and behavior of effective school principals as identified by educational authors?

2. What patterns of need for leadership expertise emerge, based upon particular demographic characteristics of the secondary principals in Fiji?

3. What do principals perceive to be the most effective sources of their leadership expertise?

4. Where do principals look for assistance in order to improve the quality of their leadership role?

5. What insights can be gained that will improve inservice leadership development programs?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is founded on perception theory. The study of perception is diverse. Partly, this is a result of the length of time that perceptual problems have been studied (Coren, Porac, & Ward, 1984). From the early Greek philosophers, through the times of the British empiricists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to the German psychologists of modern times, the basic questions in the concept of perception were considered important issues (Gibson, 1969).

In addition to the diversity caused by a long and varied history, perception had been affected by many "schools" of thought. There were the psychophysicists, gestaltists, functionalists, transactionalists, sensory physiologists, sensory-tonic theorists, and "new look" psychologists, to name a few, each with his or her own major theoretical viewpoint and his or her own particular set of methodological techniques. However, as Coren, Porac, and Ward (1984) observed, despite the diversity of voices and viewpoints, there seems to be a consensus about the important aspects in the study of perception.

Those who studied perception were interested in how a person formed a conscious representation of the outside environment and in the accuracy of that representation. Contemporary theorists believed that people built a conscious picture of their environment through the information reaching their senses (Coren, Porac, & Ward, 1984). Thus perception is viewed by the social psychologist as a process of information extraction.

Bartley (1958) stated that "perception is any act or process of knowing objects, facts, or truths, whether by sense experience or by thought, awareness of object; consciousness" (p. 8).

Forgus (1966) defined perception "as the process by

which an organism receives or extracts certain information about the environment" (p. 2).

This is reinforced by Coren, Porac, and Ward (1984), who suggested that perception be approached as an information processing behavior. They defined perception as "the conscious experience of objects and object relationships" (p. 11).

Studying and understanding perception is important to humans who fundamentally want to know themselves and the nature of their physical and social environment. Berelson and Steiner (1964) said:

> How people come to know and interpret their work is fundamental to the understanding of human behavior, since behavior, as distinct from sheer motion, is action that takes the environment into account. (p. 87)

Because each individual has a unique perceptual screen through which he/she filters everything that he/she observes, no two people have the same perception; but the perception of every member in a social system is important.

Perception, therefore, is vital to the operation of any organization and to the dynamics of its leadership. A person's perception of a situation is the first step in the process of problem solving. In a social system, such as a school, studying the perception of both leaders and members is an essential part of the overall development and improvement of the education system. Mackenzie, Corey, and associates (1954) reinforced this notion by

pointing out that sensitivity to the perceptions of others is essential to leadership (p. 48). Meeting the environmental needs of the school and the leadership needs of the principal is of great importance to the success of the institution. It is essential, therefore, that the needs perceptions of principals be investigated.

For Fiji, a developing nation in the South Pacific, it is important that the type of training provided for school administrators by colleges, university, and the Ministry of Education are based on the identified needs of the principals, who daily are involved in the leadership task.

By determining the leadership training needs of principals through investigation such as of this type, educators of school administrators would have a basis for developing and delivering relevant courses and programs that will help present and future principals to become effective school administrators.

Importance of the Study

Because "the principalship is one of the most critically important positions in education" (Weldy, 1979, p. x), the ongoing task of its study and appraisal is essential.

The principals are those who are directly responsible for the success or failure of a school's program (Lachance, 1984). The principals are the ones who

face the day-to-day problems of the school. The principals' time is spent on the needs and problems of students, teachers, and other school personnel. Their willingness and ability to contribute to the solution of problems determine their success as administrators and leaders of the school. Thus, the principals have very important responsibilities. For this reason, one should study the principalship in order to determine the appropriate type of preparation and experience needed to fill the position.

To date (1990), no study on leadership training needs of principals in Fiji, similar to those of Kramer (1973), Asasucharit (1983), and Al-Shagroud (1987), has been done. An investigation of this nature is essential in order that the appropriate type of training programs are provided, based upon the principals' perception of needs. This will help ensure that the programs are realistic and applicable to their Third World setting.

The result of this study can be useful to both present and aspiring principals. It can also benefit administrators in the Ministry of Education. It can help them become aware of the needs of secondary-school principals and guide them in their plans on how best to meet these needs.

The University of the South Pacific in Suva can also benefit from the result of this study. The

information gathered will help provide guidelines in identifying relevant courses and programs in both the pre-service and in-service training of educational administrators in Fiji.

Limitations of the Study

Different methods have been used in studying the leadership training needs of school administrators. This investigation is limited by the needs perception of the practicing secondary-school principals in Fiji during the 1989 school year. The survey instrument and the methodology used in the analysis of data also place limitations on the application made in the findings of this study.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is concerned only with secondary school principals in the country of Fiji during the 1989 school year. The population includes all (140) principals in both government and private schools.

Assumptions

This study is based on the following assumptions:

1. It is assumed that needs for leadership training can be determined from the identification of educational leadership problems facing principals.

2. It is assumed that the principals are the best qualified persons available to identify the leadership

training needs of secondary-school principals in Fiji.

3. It is assumed that the subjects will be cooperative and will provide valid and reliable responses to a questionnaire.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined as follows:

Administration is closely related to an organization and it refers to all those techniques and procedures employed in the operation of the organization in accordance with established policies.

Educational Administration refers to the tasks and processes of executive management and leadership involved in the operation of an educational organization.

Executive Management refers to the technical-managerial function involved in the operation of a school.

Junior Secondary School is the name applied in Fiji to the second level of formal education which begins at Form 1 (grade 7) and ends at Form 4 (grade 10).

Leadership is a function requiring human behavior that will influence the activities of an individual or a group to achieve a common goal; it involves accomplishing goals with and through the willing cooperation of people.

Principal refers to the top administrator and professional leader who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the school.

Secondary School is the name applied in Fiji to the second level of formal education; it may involve five to seven years of instruction--Forms 1 to 5 (grade 11), 6 (grade 12), or 7 (grade 13).

Third World is used to describe the nations of Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Near East, Caribbean, and the South Pacific of which Fiji is a part.

Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters:

Chapter I presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose, importance, assumptions, and delimitations of the study, the theoretical framework, definition of terms, and organization of the study.

Chapter II surveys the literature, including the historical background and educational system in Fiji, and training of educational administrators in the South Pacific; the historical perspective of principalship, Administration and Leadership; contributions to leadership theory, leadership styles and dimensions; and leadership role and leadership skills of the principal, and the leadership qualities and behavior of effective school principals.

Chapter III deals with the methodology that was used in the study. A description of the development of the instrument, pilot study, procedures, population, data

collection, and analysis is included.

Chapter IV contains the findings and the interpretation of the results.

Chapter V provides the summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature pertaining to this study on the leadership training needs of secondary-school principals in Fiji is divided into the following sections:

1. Historical Background and Educational System in Fiji
2. Training of Educational Administrators in the South Pacific
3. Historical Perspective of the Principalship
4. Administration and Leadership
5. Contributions to Leadership Theory
6. Leadership Styles and Dimensions
7. Leadership Role and Skills of the Principals
8. Leadership Qualities and Behavior of Effective School Principals.

Historical Background and Educational System in Fiji

Geography

Fiji, which gained independence from Great Britain on October 10, 1970, consists of over 300 islands, of which 100 are inhabited. The total land area is 7,055 square

miles. Fiji is about the size of Hawaii (area: 6,424 square miles) or the state of Massachusetts (area: 8,257 square miles).

The country is situated between 15 degrees and 22 degrees south latitude and between 174 degrees east and 177 degrees west longitude. It lies between Hawaii and New Zealand and is centrally placed among the other island territories of the southwest Pacific and acts as a gateway to them. Fiji also lies on the main route between Australia and New Zealand, and the United States of America and Canada.

Suva, the capital and chief seaport, is 1,317 statute miles from Auckland, 1,960 from Sydney, 3,183 from Honolulu, and 5,611 from San Francisco. Nadi, on the western side of Viti Levu, is the International Airport (Fiji: Annual Report, 1969).

The large islands of the archipelago are generally rugged, topographically, but there are extensive areas of flat land. More than half of the territory is covered with tropical rain forest. The climate is oceanic, with tropical temperatures cooled by southeast trade winds from May to October. Temperature extremes range from 65 to 90 degrees Fahrenheit.

History

The Fijian Community

While Fijian legend holds that Chief Lutunasobasoba

led his people from across the seas to settle Fiji, it is commonly believed that the early Fijians migrated from South East Asia via New Guinea. The Fijian people are a mixture of Melanesian and Polynesian races, and different areas of the country reflect those influences.

During pre-European times and prior to Cession, Fiji was a loose collection of chieftainships, often about nine in number. Territorial boundaries varied dependent upon the successes of individual chiefs. A chief was given his rank by birth, and this defined his relations with others. However, his recognition as a political power was dependent to some degree on his military acuity, his leadership abilities, and political savvy (Nayacakalou, 1977).

Hoebel (1972) pointed out that the chiefs in the early days of Fiji were almost always descendents of an immigrant group that "bamboozled" the local populace into believing that they had superior magical powers and controlled valuable rituals which benefited the community.

For this reason, the chiefly class enjoyed exalted sanctity and privileged superiority. They ruled their subjects as lords or tyrants, where no one dared disobey their commands. Their autocratic style of leadership was respected and accepted as the only way of accomplishing conmmunal tasks successfully.

The Fijian community was kinship based. This aspect

of its social structure can still be observed in many Fijian villages. Though the social organization may differ a little from village to village, several characteristics were common (Nayacakalou, 1975). The itokatoka, or extended family, was the smallest social category which formed the basic production unity. Within the itokatoka it was common for males to be senior to females and elders senior to youth; though as Nayacakalou (1977) pointed out, the situational context was important. Land was held by the mataqali, patrilineal kin groups.

The widest village social segmentation was the yavusa in which existed a five-tiered structure of mataqali. On the top were the turaga, the chiefs; they were followed by the saturaga, the chief's henchmen; then came the matani-vanua, the holders of traditional lore and knowledge; the bete, the priests, followed; and finally came the bati, warriors. There were also other groups like the gonedau (fishermen) and the mataisau (carpenters) who performed special community services but were not associated with any particular land holding (Roth, 1953).

Formally, the yavusa formed associations called vanua for political and/or military reasons, and these in turn sometimes created alliances known as matanitu, but such groups no longer exist other than in name. Yavusa and mataqali still exist in every village; they are named and they occupy designated areas. Descent is partrilineal,

marriage patrilocal, and the lineage groups are exogamous (Tierney, 1980).

Although Fiji now, as an independent nation, has adopted a democratic Western-style form of government, the traditional hierachical system of leadership is still honored in the provincial, district, and village way of life of the Fijian community.

European Contact

The first European contact with Fiji was accidental; Abel Tasman (1643), James Cook (1774), and William Bligh (1789) noted Fiji in their South Sea explorations. Shipwrecked sailors and runaway convicts were the first Europeans to live among the Fijians. Then came the traders, followed by the missionaries.

The introduction of firearms, strong drink, and misunderstandings between Christians and heathens led to more frequent and destructive intertribal warfare. By 1854, a paramount chief, Ratu Seru Cakobau, accepted Christianity, and Western influence increased. Because of the mounting problems in the country, Cakobau with twelve other leading chiefs formally and unconditionally ceded the Fiji Islands to Great Britain on October 10, 1874. For ninety-six years Fiji remained a British crown colony until it gained independence on October 10, 1970.

A Multi-racial Country

During British colonial rule, 60,537 Indians arrived

in Fiji between 1879 to 1916 to work as indentured laborers in the newly established sugar plantations. On the expiration of their ten-year contract, many chose to remain in Fiji as independent farmers and businessmen. Thus, Indians came to be part of the Fiji community. Now, Indians outnumber the Fijians.

The multi-racial country enjoyed steady economic growth and political stability until 1987 when two military coups (May 14, September 25) sent the country into a state of economic depression and political instability.

The threat of Indian political domination in a country where Indians not only outnumber the Fijians but also have control of the business sector of the economy led the Fijian-controlled army to oust the new democratically elected government of Timoci Bavadra. The military government declared Fiji a republic and cut ties with Britain and the Commonwealth. The caretaker government of the new republic plans to adopt a new Constitution in its attempt to find a solution to the economic and racial problems facing the country (Dean & Ritova, 1988).

Population

Of Fiji's total population of 760,000, 52% are Indo-Fijians, 44% are Fijians, and the remaining 4% is made up of Europeans, part-Europeans, Chinese, and other Pacific

Islanders. In 1985, the population rate of growth was estimated at 2.2% per annum (Fiji's Ninth Development Plan, 1985).

Education

Historical Background

Education is of vital importance to every country, and the acceptance of that education is an essential factor for a developing country. Speaking of education in Third World countries, Asasucharit (1983) pointed out that if people who live in a given country were educated, the country would be developed progressively and rapidly since people would more likely know how to create, how to improve, how to think, how to lead their country to meet its goals or objectives. It is also true that if people are uneducated, the country will develop slowly and be unprogressive.

Selakovich (1976) stated it this way:

> Countries having highly trained and/or highly educated citizens tend to fare better economically than those that do not. No nation in the modern world is able to maintain a high level of living for the masses without a corresponding high level of education for the masses. (p. 169)

For the purpose of this study, the history of education in Fiji is divided into four major time periods:

1. Pre-European Fiji, the period before the arrival of the European missionaries in 1835

2. Pre-Colonial Fiji, the period from 1835 to British rule in 1874
3. Colonial Fiji, the period from 1874 to independence in 1970
4. Independent Fiji, the period after 1970 to the present,(1990).

Pre-European Fiji

Before the Europeans arrived, a traditional and informal system of education existed in Fiji. Various traditional skills needed for survival and existence, such as in farming, house construction, carving, and warfare, were taught by means of example and practice. The art of socialization, including the correct kinship interaction and obeisance to a variety of chiefs, was firmly embedded by early adolescence. According to Tierney (1980), the "Fijians were well-known as perhaps the greatest architects and canoe builders in the Pacific" (p. 69). Specific skills in carpentry, pottery, tapa cloth-making, meke (traditional dance), and in the decoration of weapons were taught as needed by individuals. Artifacts are preserved in both the British and Fiji museums which attest to the height reached by Fijian material culture.

Pre-Colonial Fiji

With early European contact came the beginning of formal schooling in Fiji. From 1835 onward, Methodist missionaries established mission stations, each with its

religion teacher. Local converts were given instruction in reading (Bible), writing, and numbers.

Cumming, as quoted in Singh (1972), pointed out that the Wesleyan missionaries trained large numbers of native teachers and established schools in villages, using portions of the New Testament translated into Fijian as the textbook. By 1856, a religious training institution was established by the Methodists at Davuilevu near Suva, where it continues in operation to this day (1990).

In 1844, the Roman Catholics arrived. They also developed an educational system in the country; the Catholics now (1990) have the second largest religious following. The Seventh-day Adventists and the Anglicans arrived next. They also established schools. The missionaries' prime motive was one of "converting the indigenous Fijians to the Christian faith" (Sundar, 1985, p. 4). Thus little was done in providing for other branches of learning.

Colonial Fiji

After Fiji was ceded to Great Britain in 1874, the British administrators of the colonial government imposed on the Fijians a Western type of education. Progress in the area of educating Fijians in skilled responsibilities and leadership was slow. The traditional social customs, care-free attitudes, and narrow curriculum were the major hinderances.

In 1879 the colonial government passed the first Education Ordinance providing for "common" schools in areas settled by Europeans. Two years later, in 1881, the Yanawai Industrial School was opened on Vanualevu; it was relocated in 1894 at Naikorokoro, near Suva. The curriculum included arithmetic, reading, English, and technical instruction in carpentry and boat building. This was the first government-supported school for Fijians. However, it closed in 1900 (Singh, 1972).

Public education in Fiji was provided under the Public Education Ordinance of 1890. The Ordinance made provision for free education at the Levuka Public School and Suva Common School (later renamed Suva Grammar School). These town schools were maintained by local general revenue. Teaching was based on Australian methods, and schools were inspected annually by an Inspector of Schools from the state of Victoria. The country's most prestigious secondary school, Queen Victoria School, was opened in 1906. The school, funded largely by donations from the Council of Chiefs, catered only to Fijian male students who were mainly the sons of chiefs.

The first education commission was set up in 1909 "to inquire into the existing methods of, and facilities provided for, the education of Europeans and natives in Fiji..." and to advise the government on the best methods

of improving education for both Europeans and Fijians (Singh, 1972, p. 155). The 1909 Commission was important in that it provided a nucleus of recommendations embodied in later education commissions.

In 1916, an Education Ordinance created a Department of Education and provided for the appointment of a Superintendent of Schools and a Board of Education. A system of government grants-in-aid was also established.

The second education commission convened in 1926, and reported the need of revising the curriculum. It found that most of the village schools taught little more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. There was a need for agricultural and industrial training, but the curriculum up to this time emphasized book-learning. The teachers were usually uncertificated; school equipment was primitive, "and everywhere education was divorced from reality" (Singh 1972, p. 167).

The Education Commission brought about important changes, rapidly expanding government involvement in Fiji's educational system. The Department of Education had the power to register schools and teachers, to decide upon grants-in-aid, to prescribe syllabi and texbooks, to control staffing and inspections, and to assume responsibility for the administration of all government schools.

Ten years later an investigation by the joint secretary

to the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies noted a satisfactory report of a well-established education system (Tierney, 1980).

The controversial Stephen's Report of 1944 on the administration of the education system in Fiji found (1) little integration of the races in the schools, (2) a generally low standard in both Indo-Fijian and Fijian schools, (3) little coordination between primary and secondary education, and (4) a teacher-advancement policy based on examination rather than teacher excellence. The recommendations by Stephens which were enacted included: (1) the opening of Nasinu Teachers' Training College in 1947, (2) the establishment of District Education Officers to provide closer links between teachers and administrators, and (3) granting of Civil Service status to registered teachers in 1948 (Tierney, 1980).

In the decade after World War II, the country saw a rapid expansion of primary education with little corresponding improvement in teacher quality. Then in 1955, a Report on Education in Fiji, and a five-year development plan, 1956-1960, brought about an expanded system of grants-in-aid, the expansion of a radio broadcast system for schools, improvement in the standard of teacher-training applicants, and the passing of the 1960 Education Ordinance.

The next five-year period, 1961-1965, saw a 20 percent increase (from 85,407 to 102,489) in the number of

full-time students, but no increase in teacher preparation facilities. The Derrick Technical Institute in Suva was in full operation by 1964; and in 1966, the establishment of the University of the South Pacific was recommended.

The raising of standards and expansion of facilities were the emphases in the educational sector of the 1966-70 Development Plan. The goals included:

1. A general reduction in the cost of primary education to parents through remission of fee grants, free textbooks, and increased building grants to non-Government primary schools

2. A reduction in the length of the elementary course from 8 years to 6, and the establishment of a network of Junior Secondary Schools with a more technical/vocational emphasis in their curriculum

3. The grant-aiding of three more non-Government secondary schools each year, and great expansion of fifth and sixth form facilities

4. The expansion of the Derrick Technical Institute and the establishment of secondary technical and marine training schools

5. The rebuilding of Nasinu Teachers Training College to cater to a roll of 300

6. Various measures designed to increase the output of Fijians with acceptable academic qualifications. (Singh, 1972, p. 186)

Tierney (1980) observed that it was during the same period that in the eyes of an increasing number of people, "The education of Fijians had become the systems' number one concern; specifically, the gap between the Fijians and Indo-Fijians, especially in the higher secondary school level" (p. 72).

With this concern and the lack of progress made in fulfilling the educational goals of the 1967-70 Development Plan, the Colonial government was forced to call for an education commission which met in September 1969, one year before Fiji became independent.

The 1969 Education Commission considered the general state of Fijian education and recommended a new curriculum, expanded primary-school enrollment (to 97.5 percent of the primary school age population by 1975), the establishment of junior secondary schools (Forms 1-4), the improvement of boarding and transport facilities, and the awarding of scholarships to qualified Fijians. The last three recommendations were designed to narrow the educational gap between Fijians and others.

The Colonial period in the history of Fiji ended with the 1969 Education Commission Report becoming the basis of education for Independent Fiji (Education Report for Modern Fiji, 1969).

Independent Fiji

At independence (October, 1970), Fiji inherited a legacy of the British-Colonial education system with all its western concepts, values, patterns, achievements, and failings. The leaders of modern Fiji recognized that major changes had to be made and a strong foundation with long-term plans needed to be laid for a more relevant educational system.

In its first five-year development plan after independence (DP 6 - 1970-75), Rodgers, the Director of Education, outlined a proposal statement on Fiji's future educational policy emphasising "What it is hoped to achieve in the next 15 years or so." The seven main goals in the field of general education by the middle of the 1980s were as follows:

1. Provision to enable every child to have at least 10 years of education
2. A marked improvement in the quality of the intake into teachers' colleges and teacher-education programs
3. The staffing of all primary schools solely by trained teachers, an increase in the proportion of trained teachers in secondary schools, and the achievement of an acceptable pupil to teacher ratio in all primary and secondary schools
4. A marked improvement in the quality of primary and secondary education
5. The institution of free-form education, first for classes 1-6 and then for Forms 1-4, and a marked reduction in fees at the Form 5-6 level
6. A marked improvement in the education of Fijians, in order to redress the present imbalance between other races in Fiji
7. The creation of a new examination structure. (Rodgers, 1970, p. 4)

The above goals reflected the hopes of the new nation in its attempt not only to provide for the educational needs of the people but also to assist in the social and economic development of the new nation.

A review of the education reports and development plans of the Fiji government for the past eighteen years

since independence reveal not only major progress but also problems in the educational system.

Great progress had been made in achieving the aim to provide and make accessible education for all, especially at the primary level of the school system. The tuition fee-free scheme, introduced in class 1 in 1973, was extended to class 8 by 1982. More junior secondary schools were established, especially in rural areas, making it possible for the government to attain its goal of making available "ten years of education for every child" in Fiji (Fiji's Eighth Development Plan 1981-85, p. 255).

Major strides were taken to completely localize the curriculum and examinations. The Curriculum Development Unit of the Ministry of Education continued to reappraise and revise the existing courses, review the effectiveness of school examinations, and broaden and enrich the school curriculum through the introduction of more practical subjects. In the last ten years (1980 - 1990), the teaching of vernacular languages such as Fijian and Hindi has been strengthened and broadened. Computer education has been introduced into secondary schools since 1984.

During the Development Plan seven and eight periods (DP7, 1976-80; DP8, 1981-85), emphasis was placed on technical and vocational education. There were increased facilities and equipment besides the introduction of new courses such as multicraft and agro-technical education in

many secondary schools. At the post-secondary level, the expansion of the Derrick Technical Institute (now called Fiji Institute of Technology) in Suva and the opening of the Ba Technical Institute in western Viti Levu were major steps to help meet the demand for technical training in the country. Other improvements included the consolidation of courses at the School of Printing and the establishment ofthe School of Maritime Studies and the School of Hotel and Catering Services (now called, the School of Food and Fashion).

A major development in the field of teacher training was the opening of Lautoka Teachers College in 1977, bringing the total number of primary teacher-training institutions to four. Two are operated by the government-- Nasinu and Lautoka Teachers' Colleges; one by the Roman Catholic Church--Corpus Christi Teacher Training College in Suva; and one by the Seventh-day Adventist Church--Fulton College in Tailevu. The Nasinu Teachers Training College was closed in 1982.

Secondary teacher training began in 1975 by the University of the South Pacific in Suva. The diploma and degree programs in teacher education helped to improve the quality of secondary school-teachers. Other measures taken, such as raising the minimum entry qualification for teacher trainees and regular in-service programs, were

aimed at enhancing the quality of education at both the primary and secondary level.

The expansion and improvement of Fiji's education system has not gone on without its share of major problems and drawbacks. Tierney (1980) explained that there were imbalances

> between the quantity of schools and the quality of education; between the numbers of schools and qualified teachers; between the quality and quantity of urban and rural schools; and between the examination results between Fijians and Indo-Fijians. (p. 89)

The Fijians had not enjoyed success in education on a rate equal to other races within the country. This "Fijian Problem" had become a major concern for the Ministry of Education and government leaders, as Fiji faced the social and economic realities of the modern age.

Other special problems facing the Ministry of Education included: the shortage of trained teachers in secondary schools; wastage in both primary and secondary schools; lack of funds for improved and specialized facilities; and lack of qualified persons for more specialized areas of education (Tierney, 1980).

These problems are part of the educational issues for which the government is attempting to find solutions within the Development Plan period, 1986-1990.

The Structure of the Educational System

In Fiji, the majority of the children begin their formal education of primary school at the age of six. Up

until 1976, children's education followed the traditional 8-year primary/4-year secondary system. The change to the 6-year primary/6-year secondary system was rather gradual. In 1980, 355 primary schools (55 percent of total) still retained the old structure which enabled students to sit for the Secondary School Entrance Examination and, hence, be eligible to apply for admission to various secondary schools (Fiji Eighth Development Plan, 1981-85, 1980).

Students completing primary education continued their schooling in either a junior secondary (Forms 1-4, years 7-10) or a full secondary school (Forms 1-6 or 7, years 7-12). At the end of year 10 (Form 4) students sat for the Fiji Junior Certificate Examination. Successful students might continue to Form 5 and beyond, or they might choose to take up vocational training.

At the end of forms 5 and 6, students sat for the School Certificate and University Entrance examinations, respectively. These were external examinations set according to the New Zealand course prescriptions. The Fiji school system used the School Certificate examination for the last time in 1987. The University Entrance was terminated in 1988 and replaced by the Fiji School Leaving Certificate examination beginning November 1989.

Options to take studies in technical and professional courses are opened to those completing Forms 5 and 6. Training courses are from between one to three years in

colleges or technical institutes. Those choosing to take academic and professional programs at university level are required to complete either Form 7 (offered in a few secondary schools), or the foundation year at the University of the South Pacific.

Training of Educational Administrators in the South Pacific

The small, scattered nations of the South Pacific region are presently undergoing intense development activities in the field of education. These, according to Bhindi (1988), have created heavy demands for more and better qualified educational administrators in the new expanding areas to implement major reforms and innovations (p. 50). Such a heavy demand cannot be easily met by the small developing countries of the South Pacific. Many of these island states acquired independence in the last two decades and are confronted with problems in the area of educational administration, such as the following:

(1) Shortage of professionally trained administrators

(2) Meager resources for the training of educational administrators

(3) Lack of training facilities and expertise to meet the heavy demand for skilled personnel

(4) Lack of skills in critical areas of need, such as personnel competent to undertake research, determine priorities, and draw up training plans

(5) Unco-ordinated training efforts. In some countries several departments handle different aspects of training, and this sometimes leads to wastage of training opportunities and undermining of national priority

(6) Poor criteria for the selection of personnel for training. People are sometimes selected not because they stand to gain from such training but because they are next in line

(7) Lack of promotion opportunities due to existence of few senior positions

(8) Appointment to key positions of untested, inexperienced people who cannot handle the demands of the job. (Bhindi, 1988, p. 50, 51)

Despite these problems many of the countries of the South Pacific region have put forth efforts to organize training programs for the preparation of educational administrators. Many of these have been conducted on the basis of immediate pressures and convenience rather than on any systematic survey of needs, priorities, or plans.

In the last ten years (1978 - 1988), international organizations like the Commonwealth Secretariat, Commonwealth Council of Educational Administration, and some New Zealand and Australian tertiary institutions and aid agencies have been providing training in educational administration through seminars, institutes, and short courses. Udagama (1985) concluded that these provisions were rather inadequate. A lot more needed to be done.

The first training course for educational administrators in the region was organized in 1978 by the Commonwealth Secretariat through the Institute of Education of the University of the South Pacific. Twenty-six educational administrators from ten countries of the region attended the three-month course at the University

in Suva. Since then many more in-service training programs, organized by either local or overseas agencies, have been conducted throughout the South Pacific region.

The University of the South Pacific now offers a Diploma in Educational Administration, which is also available through its extension services. The Institute of Education of the University also conducts in-service training for educational administrators in some of the Pacific countries. These programs provide the basic elements of educational administration upon which principals and other school administrators can continue to build their professional career as they participate in in-service training programs or move on to pursue graduate degrees at tertiary institutions overseas.

Historical Perspective of the Principalship

The local school principal was the first educational administrative position to evolve in the United States (Wood, Nicholson, & Everett, 1985). The position, according to Goldman (1966), was born in response to the many clerical tasks that became necessary as the educational enterprise expanded.

During the early years, in addition to teaching and administering the school, the principal often served as town clerk, church chorister, official visitor of the sick, bell ringer of the church, grave digger, court

messenger, and performed other duties (Wiles & Bondi 1983, p. 126).

The position developed from teacher to being a teacher principal and then to supervising principal. This was in response to the growing size of the student and teacher population in the school. As towns grew larger, local school committees found that one-and two-teacher schools were inefficient, so small schools were combined. As the schools became larger, more authority was given to the head teachers.

Gutek (1983) explained that the head teacher was chosen on the basis of knowledge and experience. As a "master teacher" he/she was looked upon as one who could give advice, help, and guidance to teachers with less experience, and especially to beginning teachers (p. 256). As early as 1839, the Cincinnati school committee outlined the responsibilities of the principal-teacher as follows:

1. To function as the head of the school charged to his care
2. To regulate the classes and course of instruction of all the pupils, whether they occupied his room or the rooms of other teachers
3. To discover any defects in the school and to apply remedies
4. To make defects known to the visitor or trustee of the ward, or district, if he were unable to remedy conditions
5. To give necessary instruction to his assistant
6. To classify pupils

7. To safeguard school houses and furniture

8. To keep the school clean

9. To refrain from impairing the standing of assistants especially in the eyes of their pupils

10. To require the cooperation of his assistants. (Jacobson et al., 1973, p. 29, 30).

The school committee pointed out that the qualifications for the position of principal-teacher were to include a knowledge of teaching methods, an understanding of children's characteristics and behavior, and a feeling for the common problems of the school (Jacobson, 1973).

Pierce (1935) explained that even though, about the mid-1800s, the principal-teacher was given release time from teaching, he/she often lacked training and interest in giving help to the staff through supervision. He/she was contented to attend to clerical and routine matters instead of giving vigorous leadership to the staff.

During the early decades of the twentieth century, the influence of new thought and new theories concerning education and management began to be felt in the area of school leadership. (These are discussed in another section of this review). Wilson (1966) and Jacobson, Logsdon, and Wiegman (1973) agreed that the administrative duties of the principal developed before the supervisory function was fully realized. As a result, the administrative duties often monopolized the major portion of the principal's time. Wilson, (cited in Bishaw, 1975) when

comparing the duties of the early principal-teacher to the modern secondary-school principal of his time, pointed out that the modern principal was required to do "more than routine and standardized duties." He listed the duties of the modern principal as follows:

1. Communication center of the school
2. A clearing house for the transaction of school business
3. A counseling center for teachers and students
4. A counseling center for school patrons
5. A research division of the collection, analysis and evaluation of information regarding activities and results
6. The repository of school records
7. The planning center for solving school problems and for initiating school improvements
8. A resource center for encouraging creative work
9. A coordinating agency in cultivating wholesome school and community relations
10. The coordinating center of the school enterprise. (p. 10)

It is evident that in the development of the principalship, the modern principal is expected to go beyond performing administrative duties and should provide educational leadership for the school.

Administration and Leadership

The high-school principalship is considered by many educators as one of the most difficult and challenging positions in education (Nottingham, 1979). In the

performance of this role, the principal demonstrates both administrative and leadership behavior.

The use of the terms administration and leadership have at times raised disputes among educators as to their meaning and characteristics. Though some have used the terms interchangeably, it may be observed that there is definitely a distinction between administration and leadership (Hemphill, 1958; Jones, 1988; Lipham, 1964; Peters & Austin, 1985; Sergiovanni et al., 1980; Wagner, 1984; Zalesznik, 1977).

Administration

Administration is the art of getting things done (Wilson, 1966). It is the process of working with and through others to efficiently accomplish the goals of an organization. Sergiovanni et al. (1980) viewed administration as the art and science of "getting things efficiently done" (p. 5).

According to Walker (1968), administration is the process of coordinating the activities of the organization by means of establishing aims and policies and seeing that steps are taken towards their achievement (p. 24).

Administration, therefore, is a process. Traditionally, this process had been described (Gulick, 1937; Tead, 1951a) as consisting of the elements or phases of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Gorton (1976)

identified the various administrative processes which an administrator employs. He listed thirteen categories: (1) problem identification, (2) diagnosis, (3) setting objectives, (4) decision making, (5) planning, (6) organizing, (7) coordinating, (8) delegating, (9) initiating, (10) communicating, (11) working with groups, (12) problem solving, and (13) evaluating (p. 45).

From these, Sergiovanni et al. (1980) identified four functions--planning, organizing, leading, and controlling as "critical administrative processes."

Barnard (1938), Simon (1945), and Griffiths (1959), who defined administration as the art and science of decision making, argued that the central function of administration was directing and controlling the decision making process.

Hemphill (1958) and Walker (1968), on the other hand, saw leadership and group problem solving as the central concern of administration. These functions are part of the social process in the hierachy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system such as a school (Getzels, 1968).

In 1951, Tead wrote The Art of Administration and defined it as

> The process and agency which is responsible for the determination of the aims for which an organization and its management are to strive, which establishes broad policies under which they are to operate, and which gives general oversight to the continuing effectiveness of the operation. (p. 101)

Leadership

Leadership is a many-faceted concept. From a review of literature, one finds that considerable disagreement exists concerning its meaning. As Wilson (1966) pointed out, "leadership is complicated. It is intellectual; it is emotional; and it is physical. It is inherited, and it is learned. It is the summation of the total man which must square with myriad desires of the group" (p. 50).

Perhaps no single definition will ever be found to be entirely satisfactory, but at least the various definitions found in the literature serve to call attention to different orientations and degrees of emphasis in the leadership problem, where "people processes" and "systems" are the common ingredients of the leadership formula (Hanson, 1979).

Those predisposed to a personalistic concept of leadership tend to view it as a one-way influence process, while those committed to a situational concept tend to view it as an interactive process. Others, who held an organizational orientation, subscribed to the view that the incumbents of status position were ipso facto leaders (Lipham & Hoeh, Jr., 1974). With different views concerning the concept of leadership, it is not surprising to find that the literature is replete with varied and sometimes conflicting definitions.

Pigors (1935) defined leadership "as a process of mutual stimulation which controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause" (p. 16).

Tead (1935) saw leadership as "the process of helping a group to achieve goals which seem desirable to the group" (p. 20). This is similar to Stogdill's (1950) view that portrayed leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement.

Cunningham (1976) described the concept of leadership as a "curious blending of leading and following, provoking and calming, disturbing and stabilizing . . . generating new strength and capability along the way" (p. 324). Leadership, according to Sergiovanni (1979), involves introducing something new or helping to improve present conditions. Burns (1978) believed that leaders should induce new, more activist tendencies in their followers; arouse in them hopes, aspirations, and expectations.

According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, leadership is the exercising of influence over others on behalf of the leader's purposes, aims, or goals. In this definition, the leader is saying, "Follow me. I know where I'm going!"

This was reflected in the views held by Katz and Kahn (1966) who considered the essence of leadership to be "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance

with the routine directives of the organization" (p. 302). The focus here was on the leader's ability to induce "extra effort" from the followers.

Lipham (1964) wrote of the inherent contradiction in most definitions of "administrative leadership." He pointed out that an administrator was concerned primarily with maintaining, rather than changing, established structures, procedures, or goals. He saw the role of administration as a stabilizing force, while leadership was viewed as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing or changing an organization's goals and objectives (p. 122).

Getzels (1973) added a new dimension to the concept of leadership when he argued that definitions that described the leader as one who initiates a new structure in social systems are inadequate. He contended that "the missing ingredient is recognition that leadership depends on followership, a function of cooperation or mutuality with the leader rather than forcible domination and coercion by the leader" (p. 16).

Kelly (1974), who defined leadership as "the performance of acts which assist the group in achieving certain ends" (p. 365), stressed that it is the group that attains goals and not the leader.

Boles and Davenport (1975) said that leadership is a process--not a category of behavior, a prerogative of position or personality, not a collectivity of persons.

In their view,

> Leadership is a process in which an individual takes initiative to assist a group to move toward production goals that are acceptable, to maintain the group, and to dispose of these needs of individuals that impelled them to join it. (p. 153)

Perhaps it was this multiplicity of definitions that prompted Spikes (1979) to conclude "that there appears to be no universally accepted definition of this concept which has stood the test of time and injury" (p. 9).

How Leadership Differs From Administration

The concepts of administration and leadership continue to change (Morphet, Johns, & Reller, 1982), and thus, they continue to pose a challenge to educators (Morris, 1985). Since 1925, hundreds of research studies related to these concepts have created a new body of knowledge, only to add to the complexity of the phenomenon, with little or no agreement on their meaning or distinctions.

It was Lipham (1964), following Hemphill (1958), who, in attempting to solve this problem, suggested that "the term leader be restricted to the role of change agent and the term administrator to the role of maintaining the organization." According to this view, administration refers to the normal behaviors associated with one's job. The differences between the two can be seen in the behavior of leaders who initiate new structures, procedures, and goals. Both authors suggested that

leadership emphasized newness and change.

Tye (1972) wrote:

> The role of the administrator is to accomplish established goals through the utilization of established means. The principal who can be judged as the best administrator is the one who can follow established policy and procedure and make others do likewise. On the other hand, the role of the leader is to find and initiate new means to reach established goals or to formulate with the staff new goals for the school. (p. 10)

Engstrom (1976) listed eight distinctions made between leadership and administration:

Leadership	Administration
1. is a quality	1. is a science and an art
2. provides vision	2. supplies realistic perspectives
3. deals with concepts	3. relates to functions
4. exercises faith	4. has to do with facts
5. seeks effectiveness	5. seeks efficiency
6. is an influence for good among potential resources	6. coordinates resources for maximum accomplishment
7. provides direction	7. is concerned about control
8. thrives on opportunity	8. succeeds on accomplishment (p. 23).

Zaleznik (1977) explained that in leadership the leaders would create new approaches and imagine new areas to explore, working from high-risk positions. On the other hand, one who was involved in administration would tend to be maintenance-oriented, working as a coordinator and regulator of an existing order of affairs.

According to Wagner (1984), leadership involves concepts, vision, and overall direction; it includes the willingness to take risks and upset the status quo in order to move out toward new horizons.

Peters and Austin (1985) viewed leadership as a process of unleashing energy, building, growing, where the leader was a "cheerleader, enthusiast, nurturer of champions . . . coach, facilitator, builder" (p. 266).

This study which investigated the leadership role of principals adopted the views of Morphet, Johns, and Reller (1982). They conceptualized leadership as

> the influencing of the actions, behaviors, beliefs, and feelings of one actor in a social system by another actor with the willing cooperation of the actor being influenced. (p. 128)

This study also accepted the view that leadership is more than personality and position. It is a strategic skill. As Niehouse (1988a) explained, leadership is not a panacea or wondrous magic, but "a strategic skil--a skill composed of a few basic concepts that anyone can learn and apply . . . to get more things done, and motivate people to their best efforts" (p. 71).

Based on the views of authors whose contributions are discussed here, a distinction between these concepts is noted. In this study, the term "administration" refers to all those techniques and procedures employed in operating the organization in accordance with established policies; a function which deals with controlling and maintaining the organization. "Leadership," on the other hand, refers to all those qualities and procedures employed to influence group activities that lead to the attainment of organizational goal and the introducing of changes in the

system whenever the need arises.

Sergiovanni, Burlingame, Combs, and Thurston (1980a) explained that although leadership may be viewed by some as superior, and administration seen as a less essential, lower status activity, it should be noted that operationally they are interrelated, and in practice both should be considered as necessary and important variations in administrative style. The choice is not either leadership or administration, but for a better balance between the two and a more realistic view of the possibilities for each.

Contributions to Leadership Theory

Students of management in the business world have contributed much to the historical development of ideas relating to leadership and administration.

In the late 1800s Weber developed a model for the bureaucratic organization. He outlined the ideal bureaucratic structure that was characterized by a division of labor based upon functional specialization, a hierarchy of authority, a system of rules and duties, and procedures regarding work to be performed. Weber's bureaucratic model, which continued to have a profound effect upon organization, was based on rationality and impersonality. This depersonalized form of organization in many respects minimized the human influence (Wiles & Bondi, 1983).

Taylor (1911), founder of the Scientific Management Movement, contributed to the same school of thought. He saw job performance as the focal point of administration, stressing structure and efficiency and minimizing the human factor behind productivity. To Taylor, technology was all-important, while humankind was seen as an adjuct to machines and as a performer of routine tasks.

In 1913, Bobbitt, an educator and an advocate of scientific management, attempted to apply Taylor's principles to the schools when he published his work entitled "Some General Principles of Management Applied to the Problems of City School Systems."

For the next three decades, basic concepts and strategies of the efficiency model were applied to the broader question of administration and organizational design. Fayol (1949) and Gulick and Urwick (1937) offered a universal list of good-management principles which became very popular. These included division of work, authority, responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, span of control, and matching of people to organizational structure.

Scientific management may not have offered a theory of leadership and administration, as such, but outlined a set of principles and simple injunctions for administrators to follow. The emphasis in both scientific management and bureaucratic theories was on increasing

efficiency of the entire school organization as it achieved its goals.

Bureaucracy emphasized structuring the organization properly, defining roles, and assigning functions. Scientific management emphasized the development of control systems which could engineer the work to ensure standard output. But neither gave adequate attention to the human side of life in the educational organizations.

In the early 1930s a new image of administration emerged. The famous Hawthorne experiment at the Western Electric Company in Illinois, conducted by Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlishberger, marked the beginning of the human relations movement in administration. The research led to the discovery of psychological as well as physical factors in work production. While searching for more productive work arrangements, the investigators discovered that in spite of a number of variables thought to affect productivity, work output increased as a result of special attention being given to the workers (Knezevich, 1975).

The Hawthorne studies may be summarized as follows:

> (a) the amount of work carried out by a worker . . . is not determined solely by his physical capacity, but also by his social capacity; (b) non-economic rewards play a central role in determining the motivation . . . of a worker; (c) the highest specialization is (not) the most efficient. . . ; (d) workers do not react to management and its norms and rewards as individuals but as members of a group. (Beach, 1965, p. 30)

Barnard (1938), in the late 1930s, described

organizations as a system of people working together cooperatively. People could work together more effectively if they were in a position to communicate more effectively with each other. He formulated the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency as very essential in administration. Barnard portrayed leadership as the function of three variables: the individual, the group, and the situation.

McGregor (1960) explained that leadership and managerial decisions were based upon assumptions regarding motivation and human behavior. He conceptualized the contrasting Theory X and Theory Y viewpoints of man.

Theory X was comprised of assumptions and propositions generally associated with efficiency views of administration. Its tenets included: (1) humans dislike work and avoid it if they can, (2) humans have to be coerced, controlled, directed, and even threatened to get him to work, (3) people want security above all else, have little sense of responsibility or ambition and want to be directed, and (4) imposed controls are necessary to cope with humans.

Theory Y, on the other hand, had a higher regard for the value and potential of people. Its tenets included: (1) people like to work and find it as natural as play or rest, (2) people use self-direction and self-control in working toward organizational objectives they accept, and

(3) under proper circumstances people strive for responsibility.

Another theorist, Likert (1961), examined the conduct of organization as reflecting assumptions about how to motivate people. Organizations may be described as functioning somewhere along a point on a continuum from System 1 (Authoritative) to System 4 (Participative).

Likert argued that the management and organizational performance in System 4 is superior and more effective than organizational structure and performance in System 1 of the hierarchical, human-to-human model used in traditional organizations.

In his "linking pin theory," Likert suggested that each group in System 4 was linked to the rest of the organization by means of individuals who were members of more than one group and could play a critical role in promoting better communication. In the school organization, the principal was a linking pin as he/she functioned in the dual capacity of a school staff and a member of the school community's administrative staff.

Human-relations theorists emphasized the roles of communication, participation, and leadership. They urged that shared decision making, joint planning, common goals, increased responsibility, and more autonomy were the sorts of power-equalization strategies to be developed by educational administrators (Sergiovanni & Carver 1980).

Less attention was given to the efficiency aspect and more to obtaining the cooperation of the staff. Educational leaders were expected to be sensitive to people and to develop skills for working with people in addition to competency in the technical aspects of their work.

Leadership Styles and Dimensions

The classic work in leadership styles categorized leaders as either autocratic, laissez-faire, or democratic (Wiles & Bondi, 1983). Autocratic leadership centered authority with the status leader who passed orders down the line for subordinates to follow. In autocratic leadership, communication flowed from the top down, with very little group participation in decision making.

Laissez-faire leadership allowed complete permissiveness. Riding-the-fence and hands-off policies were two characteristics of this leadership (Wood et al., 1985). Followers lacked direction because the leader did not help in making decisions.

In the democratic style, all policies were made through group decisions. The leader participated in this task but did not dominate group action (Lall & Lall, 1979).

A variation of the three major leadership categories were identified by Bass (1960). These were coercive, persuasive, and permissive leadership styles. The coercive leader attempted to impose his/she will on the

followers and thus controlled their behavior. Coercive leadership was dependent on power to achieve its purpose.

In persuasive leadership, ability was more important than power. The leader needed to be well-informed and alert to make counter proposals to the subordinates to help them gain satisfaction.

In the permissive leadership style, power and ability were both important. The leader was granted power to reward and punish but had no intention of exercising that power. Of the leader was also required the ability to persuade in order to change the goals of the individual.

Bass (1960) pointed out that often a leader would exercise all three styles of leadership, but the successful leader was the person who could sense which style was most appropriate to the situation.

Hamacheck (1966) defined three leadership models: charismatic, authoritarian, and therapeutic. The type of model one selects depends upon the kind of person one is. The charismatic leader seems to possess charisma and is marked by power, energy, and commitment.

The authoritarian leader, as mentioned earlier, claims power not through personal endowment but through the office. He/she generally begins on the assumption that he/she knows better than others.

The therapeutic leader often hesitates in making decisions for fear of hurting someone's feelings.

Decision-making processes are often drawn out with committees involved in researching, discussing, and recommending--all in the name of fairness and democracy.

Schmidt (1962) observed that a principal might use leadership power in five different ways along a continuum of leader-centeredness to group-centeredness. The principal

> (1) decides and "tells"--he does not consult; (2) decides and "sells"--he makes an effort to persuade that it is a good decision; (3) makes a tentative decision and tests it--he asks for reactions before the proposal goes into effect; (4) consults his group--the group can influence the decision before a final decision is made; (5) joins the group in deciding--he will support whatever decision the group makes. (p. 35)

Getzels and Guba (1957) defined three styles of leadership in their theory of administration. The Nomothetic style emphasizes the normative dimension of behavior and, accordingly, the demands of the organization. The Idiographic style stresses the personal dimension of behavior and accordingly the needs of the individual. The Transactional style attempts to negotiate a course between the two extremes; at times it engages in nomothetic behavior and at other times engages in idiographic behavior.

The two major dimensions of leadership were identified by Halpin and Winer (1957). These were Initiating Structure and Consideration.

> Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of his work group, and in endeavoring to

> establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff. (p. 4)

Leadership was seen as a function of both dimensions. Instead of viewing each dimension as being at opposite ends of a single continuum, two distinct continuums were involved.

An example of employing this conceptualization was seen in the Managerial Grid (Halpin & Winer, 1959). Five distinct leadership styles could be discerned as plotted on a two-axis grid. One axis was labeled Concern for People and the other, Concern for Production. A leader, for example, could be described as being "high" in concern for task, and "low" in concern for people. High concern for people, high concern for production was considered ideal.

Leadership Role and Skills of Principals

The principal is an educational leader. He/she is seen by most people as the most important, most influential, and most powerful person in the school. Principals' responsibilities are so extensive, and their influence so far reaching, that they are viewed by many as the key persons for getting most things done. Their role does make a difference (Ubben & Hughes, 1987; Weldy, 1986).

It is the leadership that sets the tone of the

school, the climate for learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers, and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become (Weldy, 1979, p. 1).

According to Roe and Drake (1980), the major role of the school principal is to provide school leadership in order to improve the quality of life of individuals within the school.

Coccia (1977) emphasized the leadership and administrative roles of the principal. He regarded the principal as the team captain whose role involves the implementation of policies and procedures that are formed and mandated by the school committee.

Morphet, Johns, and Reller (1982) also emphasized that the role of educational administrators is to ensure that school systems function properly according to preconceived purposes and plans of action. Administrators are the activating element in the transformation process.

Al-Shagroud (1987) saw "principals as the initiators of activities and as the architects of stable environment in their schools" (p. 28).

McIntyre (1979) and Aquila and Galovic (1988) indicated that because change is continual in the world of education, educators are constantly searching for the most effective agents of change, and evidence shows that the school administrator is the most effective change agent at

the school level.

Moore and associates (1977) stated that:

> If there is anything like a strategic point in the school community system that consistently influences the effectiveness of a wide variety of change strategies, it is the principal, who has a great deal of ability to block change and some ability to initiate it. (p. 25)

Licata, Ellis, and Wilson (1977) said that "the principal can be an effective change agent by initiating the structure for innovation in the school organization" (p. 26).

Goodlad (1979) stressed the importance of the principal's leadership role by saying:

> The principal is central to development of a sense of mission, unity and pride in the school. In recent studies of schools effecting integration with some success, almost invariably the principal was indentified as strategic . . . The significance of the principal--his or her values, dedication, and strength --come to the surface. (pp. 85-86)

In this central and strategic position as school administrator, the principal is expected to take the leadership role exercising appropriate leadership skills in the performance of his/she major functions which, according to Gorton (1976), are: manager, instructional leader, displinarian, facilitator of human relations, change agent, and conflict mediator.

The principals' success, to some extent, depends on how they use their leadership skills and the type of atmosphere they create as they seek the cooperation of their teachers and staff. Seymour (1967) explained the

importance of this leadership role by saying:

> The principal needs to know how to mobilize talent in order to achieve the school's objectives, goals agreed upon by the entire staff. This is the leaderhip role of the principal. The principal cannot, must not, and does not "go it alone." How can he develop an instructional program in an atmosphere of authority? He must recognize that pupil needs will be better served when goal-setting and decision-making are the result of careful and cooperative study by teachers and staff. (p. 96)

According to Raubinger et al. (1974), "all effective leadership is in some degree shared leadership." No principal can move toward better goals for a school unless all staff members identify problems, share goals and purposes, and are willing to gain the insights, understandings, and skills essential for the accomplishment of objectives.

In the performance of their leadership role--that of organizing, influencing, and directing groups toward mutually acceptable goals--school principals require "skills beyond those required of the administrator of a former era" (Weaver, 1971, p. 56).

Katz (1955) identified three basic skills that successful administrators need to use in their leadership role--technical, human, and conceptual. Technical skills are defined as those involving specialized knowledge, analytical ability within the speciality, and facility in the use of tools and techniques of education. In noninstructional areas, it also includes specific knowledge in finance, accounting, scheduling, purchasing,

construction, and maintenance (Weaver, 1971).

Human skills, explained Sergiovanni and Carver (1980), refer to the school administrator's ability to work effectively and efficiently with other people on a one-to-one basis and in group settings. Considerable self-understanding and acceptance, as well as appreciation, empathy, and understanding for others is required of this skill.

Conceptual skills involve the ability of the school administrator to see the school, the district, and the total educational program as a whole. They include recognizing how various functions of the organization depend on one another and how changes in any one part affect all the others (Sergiovanni et al., 1980).

Weaver (1971) pointed out that although successful administrators of secondary schools must be skilled in all three areas--conceptual, human, and technical, it is essential that they possess a high degree of conceptual skill. Weaver says of the principal that "it is his conceptual ability which enables him to see the whole picture, analyse the elements in the situation and initiate the structure through which the secondary school accomplishes its task" (p. 57).

Leadership Qualities and Behavior of Effective School Principals

Effective schools are characterized by strong leadership and a positive school climate which is

conducive to learning. These effective schools are the result of the activities of effective principals who are strong instructional leaders and who know how to manage time and people efficiently and effectively (Tursman, 1981).

Essentially, leadership is the most important element in a principal's effectiveness. Leadership studies support this notion by saying that the leadership behavior of the principal affects what occurred in schools. Effective leaders are found to "initiate structure" and exhibit qualities of consideration in their administrative behavior.

Getzel, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) believed that:

> The effective principal is inclined to engage in strong and purposeful activity. While on the job he seems particularly sensitive to the pressing responsibilities of the principalship. He evidences a high degree of concern for the appropriate use of time and finds curbs to activity such as physical illness most unpleasant. (p. 2)

Ineffective principals, on the other hand, are inclined to be deliberate and slow to act. At work they are engaged in numerous random behaviors, serving as errand boy (or girl), report maker, substitute teacher, and "babysitter" with disciplinary cases.

In the Goldhammer (1971) study, it was observed that schools characterized by unenthusiasm, squalor, and ineffectiveness had weak principals who were just serving out their time. The same study revealed that in an

effective school there was "an aggressive, professionally alert, dynamic principal determined to provide the kind of educational program he deemed necessary, no matter what" (p. 13).

The study by Peterfreund (1970) about innovation revealed that

> Innovative principals identify their roles in terms of educational leadership of creating an environment for learning. They are less concerned with traditional administrative routine. Leadership implies good leadership with staff, the students and the community, and these principals have a communication system which allows information and ideas to flow up and down the line. (p. 10)

Edmonds (1979) reviewed studies done on effective schools and found leadership to be a key factor. In his summary of the "indispensable characteristics" of effective schools, he listed as first "strong leadership without which the disparate elements of good schooling can be neither brought together nor kept together" (p. 8). Edmonds saw leadership as not only important but the most important factor in school effectiveness.

Similarly, in studies by Weber (1971) and Brookover and Lezotte (1979), strong leadership by the principal was identified as of critical importance in creating an effective school. Other observed characteristics of successful principals by these researchers (Brookover & Lezotte, Edmonds, & Weber) included: (1) the high value principals placed (and maintained) on an orderly atmosphere, and (2) their emphasis on the need for

frequent evaluation of student progress toward clearly stated goals (Ubben & Hughes, 1987).

Austin (1979), after reviewing studies of school effectiveness, summarized the factors that distinguised effective schools from others. The first four factors in his list revealed the importance of the role of the principal.

1. Strong principal leadership (for example, schools "being run" for a purpose rather than "running" from force of habit)
2. Strong principal participation in the classroom instructional program and in actual teaching
3. Higher expectations on the part of the principal for student and teacher performance advancement
4. Principals felt that they had more control over the functioning of the school, the curriculum and program, and their staff. (pp. 10-14)

The Maryland State Department of Education concluded in a 1978 study of schools whose students were high achievers on standardized tests that this achievement might be directly related to the daily performance of the school principal. Schools with principals who had very high expectations of themselves, their teachers, and their students dominated the upper end of the test scale. The study reported that much of the difference in feeling or sense of direction in the school's instructional program was attributable to the principal's leadership role (Weldy, 1979, p. viii).

A study of sixty effective principals conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in

1979 found that the majority of principals felt their top priorities should be instructional leadership, personnel, and school management, in that order (Tursman, 1981).

Traditionally, according to Duke (1982), the effective principals have been described in terms of their personality traits rather than function or skills. As a result, it had been relatively difficult for observers to agree on what to look for when differentiating between more and less effective principals (p. 9).

However, research has shown that effective principals exhibited certain skills such as setting goals, actively facilitating change, and providing the assistance, effectiveness, and monitoring needed to ensure that teachers could and did change (Rutherford, Hord, & Thurber, 1984, p. 30). Erlandson (1976) stressed that effective school administrators were those who: (1) have their organizational goals clearly and precisely defined, (2) generally accomplish what they set out to do, (3) seldom express negative feelings or generate negative feelings on the part of others, and (4) are rational in all their proceedings.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals' Handbook on Effective Instructional Leadership listed the following traits of a successful instructional leader: (1) they hold high expectations for teachers and staff (2) they spend a major portion of their day in

working with teachers and improving the instructional program (3) they work in identifying and diagnosing instructional programs (4) they are deeply involved in the school's "culture" climate to influence it in positive ways (Keefe & Jenkins, 1984).

Dorman, Lipsitz, & Verner (1985), who analysed the leadership behavior of principals in effective schools, produced the following list which was believed to have ultimately led the way for the high achievement scores produced by the pupils from these schools: (1) coordinate the instructional program (2) emphasize achievement, (3) frequently evaluate pupil progress (4) provide an orderly atmosphere (5) set instructional strategies and (6) support teachers.

Dufour and Eaker (1987) identified four major leadership roles and reponsibilities of effective principals. They saw them as: (1) values promoter and protector (2) teacher empowerer, (3) instructional leader, and (4) climate manager. They emphasized that effective principals of effective schools know what they want to accomplish. They have a clear, purposeful focus, and are able to effectively communicate what they want. Futhermore, effective principals build trust by maintaining a consistent position and creating a conducive environment that empowers teachers and motivates students.

A study of school administrators in the state of Illinois identified the following leadership

characteristics of outstanding principals: conscientiousness, enthusiasm, sensitivity, knowledge, objectivity, and communication (Grace, Buser, & Stuck, 1987, p. 73). The same study revealed the following leadership activities and behaviors of outstanding principals: (1) they develop and maintain a healthy climate in which to work and learn, (2) they emphasize good instruction, (3) they seek means to help their staff members grow professionally, (4) they communicate effectively with all constituents, (5) they know and accept their own strengths and limitations, (6) they recognize and reinforce others who do outstanding work (Grace et al., 1987, pp. 74,75).

Lemley (1987) emphasized the importance of developing leadership skills for school administrators. After a review of literature on effective leadership, he outlined ten basic behaviors of leadership that are vital to the principal's performance:

1. Clearly define the limits and constraints of jobs in the organization
2. Make certain the members of the organization understand their job
3. Define the school's mission clearly for the members of the organization
4. Help the members of the organization understand what everyone in the organization does
5. Encourage autonomy
6. Provide a forum for the free and open exchange of professional ideas and concerns

7. Provide the members of the organization with ample opportunity to make decisions

8. Help the members of the organization develop friendships with others

9. Learn the values of reward system

10. Learn how to function as the cheerleader for the folks in the organization. (pp. 58 - 60)

Greenfield, in analyzing the research for a chapter of The Effective Principal (1982), identified "enduring characteristics of the role which research suggests are critical to effective performance." School site leaders who are considered to be effective exhibit the ability to:

1. Work closely with others on a face-to-face basis

2. Manage conflict and ambiguity

3. Integrate a cluster of demands competing for their time and attention

4. Anticipate and adapt in rapidly changing human, social, and environmental conditions

5. Think and exercise discretion in formulating action plans and decisions responding to the contigencies of a system in constant motion

6. Assess and evaluate the consequences of schooling for children in light of knowledge regarding effective educational and managerial practices. (pp. 17,18)

To address the question of why some principals are more effective than others in running a good school, Persell and Cookson, Jr., (1982) reviewed more than 75 research studies and reports. From the review, they identified nine recurrent behaviors that effective principals displayed. These were:

1. Demonstrating a commitment to academic goals
2. Creating a climate of high expectations
3. Functioning as an instructional leader
4. Being a forceful and dynamic leader
5. Consulting effectively with others
6. Creating order and discipline
7. Marshalling resources
8. Using time well
9. Evaluating results. (p. 22)

Bossert and others (1982) included also consideration of instructional organization, school climate, and influence behavior.

In summing up their review, Persell and Cookson, Jr., (1982) pointed out that in general, effective principals have a clear conception of what they expect from their staff and students and are able to communicate these goals. They "do not 'write off' students nor do they get bogged down in 'administrivia'." They are forceful, dynamic, and open to new ideas and have a high energy level. They take initiative but, at the same time, are willing to listen to others. They see their leadership role as helping not only others to help themselves but also the entire school community to realize its potential.

Effective principals possess a vision of what their school should be like and the capacity for "strong leadership to mobilize available resources in order to implement policies that lead to desired outcomes" (p. 27).

Summary

The review of literature pertaining to this study on the leadership training needs as perceived by the secondary school-principals of Fiji was presented in this chapter.

The history of education in Fiji could be divided into four major time periods (1) Pre-European Fiji, the period before the arrival of the European missionaries in 1835; (2) Pre-Colonial Fiji, the period from 1835 to British rule in 1874; (3) Colonial Fiji, the period from 1874 to independence in 1970; and (4) Independent Fiji, the period after 1970 to the year 1980. The British who ruled Fiji as a colony for 96 years made certain through its educational system that western influence left its mark on the social and economic life of the people.

After gaining independence in 1970, significant steps were made towards making education more relevant to the needs of the nation. As Fiji struggled to maintain a self-sufficient agricultural economy, the demand of the new industrial and technological era greatly increased the need for revelant school curricula, facilities, and well-qualified personnel. The aftermath of the 1987 military coup also led the new government to plan and adopt new strategies aimed at improving the educational system of the country. This included emphasis on providing better qualified school administrators, trained with appropriate

leadership skills in order to effectively perform their leadership role.

The developing countries in the South Pacific region are faced with a critical shortage of skilled and knowledgeable educational administrators. This reflects not only the increase in demand occasioned by the intense educational developments in the region but also the lack or absence of effective training programs for educational administrators in most of the South Pacific nations. However, the services of the University of the South Pacific in the provision of coursework and in-service programs in educational administration are steps in the right direction as the developing nations seek effective ways of training school administrators.

The principalship in the United States developed from that of a colonial headmaster whose responsibilities were wide and varied to that of supervising principal. This was in response to the growing size of the student and teacher population in the school. In the early twentieth century, the influence of new thoughts and new theories on education and management was felt in the area of school leadership, increasing the demand on the principalship.

In his/her role, the principal demonstrates both administrative and leadership behavior. Although these terms have been used interchangeably, there is definitely a distinction between them. This study uses the term

"administration" to refer to all those techniques and procedures employed in operating the educational organization in accordance with established policies; a function which deals with controlling and maintaining the status quo. "Leadership," on the other hand, refers to all those qualities and procedures employed to influence group activities that lead to the attainment of an organizational goal and introducing changes in the system whenever the need arises.

Students of management in the business world and other schools of thought have contributed much to the historical development of ideas relating to leadership and administration. This includes Weber's model for bureaucratic organization, Taylor's scientific management movement, the Hawthorne studies on human relations, Barnard's effectiveness and efficiency system, McGregor's theory X and Y, and Likert's "linking pin theory."

A review of literature on leadership styles and dimensions found that leaders were categorized as either autocratic, laissez-faire, or democratic, and that the two major dimensions of leadership indentified were initiating structure and consideration.

The principal as an educational leader is seen as the most important, most influential, and most powerful person in the school. He/she is the key person for getting most things done. It is his leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for learning, the level of

professionalism and morale of teachers, and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become. His/her role does make a difference.

To successfully perform this leadership role, it is essential that school administrators be skilled in three basic areas--conceptual, human, and technical skills.

A discussion on what educational authors said about leadership qualities and behavior of effective school administrators concluded this chapter. Educational authors studying school leadership since the early 1970s generally agree that effective schools are the result of the activities of effective principals who demonstrate strong instructional leadership, create a positive school climate that is conducive to learning, and know how to manage time and people efficiently and effectively.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership training needs of secondary-school principals in Fiji. The research design, description of the subjects, development of the questionnaire, pilot study, and procedure for collection and analysis of the data are presented in this chapter.

Survey Design

Both the documentary and descriptive research design were used in this study. A review of literature was made in order to satisfy research question 1 concerning what educational authors have identified as leadership qualities and behaviors of effective principals in the past 20 years (1969-1989). A computer and documentary data search of secondary sources was utilized using the facilities of the Andrews University library. Resource materials were also obtained from the Fiji Ministry of Education and the University of the South Pacific in Suva.

The data obtained from the review of literature is presented in Chapter 2.

A descriptive survey design was also used for this study in order to ascertain the leadership training needs of secondary-school principals in Fiji. The design used facilitated the data collection in a manner that allowed the repondents to state their perceptions as solicited by specific questions. Tuckman (1978) pointed out that questionnaires are often "used by researchers to convert into data the information directly given by a person" (p. 106). He added that this type of instrument allowed the researcher to measure what a person knew, liked or disliked, and what a person thought.

Borg (1981) stated that "descriptive research is important in education," and that it was typical for researchers to utilize questionnaires and interviews "to determine the opinions, attitudes, preferences, and perceptions of persons of interest to the researcher" (p. 130).

Subjects of the Study

In 1989, a total of 140 secondary schools (appendix B) function in Fiji (Fiji Ministry of Education, 1989). This number included both junior (Forms 1 - 4) and senior (Forms 1 - 5, & 6 or 7) secondary schools. These schools were operated by either the government, church, or other private organizations. The principals in all of these

secondary schools were solicited to contribute to this study.

Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was similar to that of Kramer (1973), wherein he studied the perceptions of principals in San Mateo, California, on leadership training needs. Kramer's permission was obtained for the modification and use of his questionnaire. Adaptations were made and some items were added after a review of related literature and of doctoral dissertations (Al-Shagroud, 1987; Asasucharit, 1983) in which questionnaires used in Third World countries occurred. These adaptations were useful and appropriate for the secondary-school principals in Fiji.

Studies revealed that the leadership actions of principals are numerous and varied in scope. While the routine administrative functions of a school administrator are essential to the overall effectiveness of the school, it is the leadership skills and knowledge of the principal that largely determine his/her effectiveness and the quality of the school.

Because the focus of this study was leadership functions of principals, emphasis in the development of the questionnaire was given to those leadership actions that involved working with people to accomplish the goal of achieving quality education for students. Excluded

were those skills and knowledge that would be classified under the broad heading of housekeeping or routine administrative functions.

The Leadership Training Needs Survey questionnaire (appendix C) was divided into four parts: (1) survey of needs for leadership training, (2) past sources of leadership expertise, (3) sources of assistance for principals, and (4) demographic information.

The respective purposes of the four sections of the questionnaire are as follows:

Section I: Leadership Training Needs - In this section respondents were instructed that the purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding specific areas of need for additional leadership training as perceived by the principal. This part consists of 33 skills and facets of knowledge required by the principal to perform the leadership role effectively in the area of: Curriculum and Instruction Development, Student Personnel Development, Staff Personnel Development, Community-school Relationships, and Business and Facilities Management.

The content of the 33 items recognize important current issues in education such as planning and goal-setting with staff and community, instructional leadership, human relations and communication skills, decision making, implementing change, and accountability.

The respondents were asked to give their

perceptions of significant needs for additional training by responding to items using a five-point Likert-type scale with a range of criticality from "high" to "low".

Section II: Past Sources of Leadership Expertise - The purpose of this section was to ascertain the principals' perceptions regarding those experiences or agencies which were effective in contributing to their leadership expertise. Included in this section were: administrative internship, college or university course work, conferences or conventions, in-service training, independent study, religion, military or business experience, on-the-job experience, rap sessions with colleagues, teaching experience, and the deputy principalship.

These items represent those agencies or experiences most commonly regarded as potentially having a significant impact upon the leadership development of principals.

Respondents were asked to evaluate each of these sources on a five-point Likert-type scale of "high" to "low" effectiveness.

The category "Lack Information to Judge" was also included for each item since it was reasonable to assume that the respondents may not have had sufficient experience with all of the sources suggested. Space was also provided for the respondent to write in any experience or agency not included in the questionnaire.

"High" to "low" ratings were also requested for the sources volunteered.

Section III: Sources of Assistance - The purpose of this section was to identify those agencies or programs principals looked to as potential sources of help to improve their leadership skills.

Four items were suggested: colleges or universities, in-service training, professional association meetings or conferences, Ministry of Education programs or activities. These items represent those agencies most often thought to have a significant role in providing assistance to practitioners in school administration.

Respondents were asked to evaluate each source on a five-point Likert-type scale of "high" to "low" effectiveness. The category "Lack Information to Judge" was also included as an option. Space was also provided for the respondent to write in agencies or programs not suggested in the questionnaire. "High" to "low" rating was also requested for the additional sources.

Section IV: Demographic Information - Eight items were included in this section in order to classify variables with reference to the questions posed in this study. The items consist of the respondents' age, sex, nationality, years of administrative experience, school size, level of school organization, most recent formal

training, and major subject studied during undergraduate education.

Pilot Study

The first draft of the questionnaire was presented to the student's doctoral dissertation committee for critique. A careful revision incorporated their suggestions in the wording and the choice of items included. These helped to sharpen the conceptualizations and phraseology of the statements used in the instrument.

A pilot study became necessary. Borg and Gall (1971) strongly recommended the use of a pilot study when a new instrument has been designed or an old instrument has been revised. This process determines if the instrument is comprehensible and clear to the respondent (Babbie, 1979; Srivastava, 1971).

Following the revisions suggested by the committee the instrument was mailed to Fiji where ten secondary-school principals were asked to participate in a pilot study of the entire questionnaire.

All ten of the Leadership Training Needs Survey were returned. A process similar to that proposed for the actual study was completed for the pilot, revealing that the instrument measured what it was intended to measure. Ambiguity was encountered with regard to terminologies used in items 60 and 57. Item 60 was improved upon, while item 57 was excluded, resulting in a questionnaire reduced to a total of 59 items. The final version of the

Leadership Training Needs Survey appears in Appendix C.

Collection of Data

Written permission to conduct the study in all secondary schools of Fiji was obtained from the Fiji Ministry of Education on March 30, 1989 (appendix D).

The researcher, who was in Fiji at this time, mailed the questionnaire and a covering letter (appendix E) to all secondary-school principals in the country. A self-addressed stamped envelope was enclosed with each letter for the convenience of the principals. All responses were to be sent to the Assistant Treasurer of the Seventh-day Adventist church in Fiji, Josateki Talemaitonga, who would in turn pass it on to the researcher.

A few days after the mailing, the researcher began a follow-up visit of the secondary schools on the main island of VitiLevu, receiving returned responses and conducting informal interviews with principals. In cases where principals had not yet received the mailed questionnaire, another copy was issued so they could respond immediately or at their earliest convenience.

In responding to the questionnaire,individual anonymity was ensured in that subjects' names did not appear on the instrument; however, each questionnaire was coded for the purpose of checking the returns. After 15 days, phone calls were made to principals whose responses had not been received, giving them a reminder to respond

and to mail the questionnaire if they had not already done so. From the 140 questionnaires sent, 110 or 78.5% were returned in usable form by June 23, 1989. The responses were entered into the Andrews University Computer and processed by the University Center for Research and Statistical Services.

Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics was the main form of analysis in this study. The SPSS computer program was used in the analysis which yielded frequency, percentages of responses, and mean weight for each of the eight categories of demographic data.

In the primary area of investigation, Need for Leadership Training, data were analyzed in frequency and percentage of response as well as mean weight for each area of expertise presented for evaluation. The criticality of need was determined through rank order presentation of data.

Two criteria were used to determine the importance of need for leadership training. (1) Majority Criterion-attraction of response of at least 50% in the High Need categories indicated by 4 and 5 on the Likert-type scale; and (2) attraction of the fewest Low Need ratings as indicated by 1 and 2 on the scale.

The differences in responses in each of the seven variables were also noted where great disparities were

identified in selected items.

For the sections Past Sources of Leadership Expertise and Sources of Assistance, responses were reported by frequency, percentage, and mean weight for each agency or experience evaluated by the respondents. Judgment on their effectiveness was based upon the criterion of at least 50% of the respondent's selection of High Effectiveness ratings of 5 and 4 on the scale.

There is limitation to the application of the findings of this investigation due to the methodology used. The findings and presentation of the data collected are found in chapters 4 and 5. Chapter 4 contains the analysis of the data, and Chapter 5 the discussion of the results.

Summary

This chapter deals with the research design, description of the subjects of the study, development of the instrument, pilot study, procedure for the collection of data, and the analysis of the data. Both documentary and descriptive survey design were used for this study.

The population of the survey consisted of all secondary-school principals in Fiji in 1989. The instrument, a four-part questionnaire, was pilot tested during the Spring of 1989. Ten secondary principals in Fiji were chosen for the pilot study.

After the Fiji Ministry of Education granted

permission to conduct the study, questionnaires were sent to 140 secondary principals throughout Fiji. The responses yielded 110 or a 78.5% return.

The services of the Andrews University Center for Research and Statistical Services, using the SPSS computer program, were utilized in the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study, as reported in Chapter 1, was to answer the basic question: What do secondary principals in Fiji perceive to be their significant needs for leadership training? In addition, answers to the following questions would be sought:

1. What are the leadership qualities and behavior of effective school principals as identified by educational authors?

2. What patterns of need for leadership expertise emerge, based upon particular demographic characteristics of the secondary principals in Fiji?

3. What do principals perceive to be the most effective sources of their leadership expertise?

4. Where do principals look for assistance in order to improve the quality of their leadership role?

5. What insights can be gained that will improve inservice leadership development programs?

A discussion to answer question 1, concerning the

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leadership qualities and behavior of effective school principals as identified from a review of literature, was presented in the last section of chapter 2. The findings presented in this chapter are directed toward providing the information required to satisfy the remaining questions.

The results of the survey conducted through the use of the Leadership Training Needs Survey questionnaire were grouped into six general areas: (1) the demographic characteristics of the respondents, (2) assessment of needs with identification of particular leadership skills for which respondents perceive an important need for additional training, (3) an analysis of differences in need for leadership training based upon demographic characteristics, (4) evaluative responses to selected agencies or experiences as effective sources of expertise, and (5) evaluative responses to selected agencies or experiences as effective sources of assistance in improving leadership expertise.

Demographic Profile of Principals

The demographic data used as variables by which differential response patterns could be observed include: age, sex, ethnic groups, years of experience as a principal, size of school enrollment, type of school organization, recency of formal training, and major subject studied in undergraduate training. The results of

the demographic information requested in the questionnaire are presented in Table 1.

From a population of 140 secondary principals there were 110 completed returns. Of these 96 were males and 14 were females representing 87% and 13% of the total number of respondents respectively.

The questionnaire requested responses to age in the categories of (a) Under 30, (b) 31-40, and (c) over 40. Thirty-six (33%) principals identified themselves as below the age of 40, and 73 (67%) indicated they were over 40.

Forty-five (41%) principals were of Fijian ethnic origin, while 53 (48%) were Indians. The remaining 12 (11%) identified themselves as of other ethnic groups.

Forty-five (41%) school administrators had served four or less years as principal. Thirty (27%) administrators have held the position for a period of 5-10 years and 35 (32%) for longer than ten years.

There were 31 (28%) principals who served in schools with an enrollment of under 200 students. Forty-two (38%) served in schools with an enrollment between 201 and 400. The remaining 37 (34%) were principals of the larger schools, those of more than 400 students.

Twenty-three (21%) principals were in charge of junior secondary schools (Forms 1-4), while 87 (79%) took charge of secondary schools (Forms 1-5, 6 or 7).

Thirty-one (28%) of the school administrators

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF PRINCIPALS

Category	Number	Percentage
Age:		
31-40	36	33
Over 40	73	67
Sex:		
Male	96	87
Female	14	13
Ethnic Group:		
Fijian	45	41
Indian	53	48
Others	12	11
Years of Experience as Principal:		
1-4	45	41
5-10	30	27
Over 10	35	32
School Size:		
Under 200	31	28
201-400	42	38
Over 400	37	34
Type of School:		
Junior Secondary (F1-4)	23	21
Secondary (F1-5, 6 or 7)	87	79
Recent Training (Degree, Credential/ Certification):		
1-4	31	28
5-10	41	37
Over 10 years	38	35
Major Subject Studied in Bachelors Degree:		
Education	65	59
English	50	46
Mathematics	12	11
Physical Education	3	3
Psychology	4	4
Science (Phys/Biol)	15	14
Social Sciences	57	52
Others	4	4

surveyed had received some formal training within the last four years. Forty-one (37%) received training between 5-10 years ago, and 38 (35%) indicated that their most recent formal training had been over 10 years.

For the area of concentration studied in undergraduate courses, the majority of principals identified more than one subject area. More than half of the respondents studied education (65 principals or 59%) and/or social science (57 principals or 52%) as an area of concentration. Fifty (46%) indicated they took English as a major subject. Fifteen (14%) studied science, 12 (11%) specialized in mathematics, four (4%) in psychology, and three (3%) in physical education. Four (4%) of the 110 principals included other subjects as area of concentration.

In summary, the demographic profile of the secondary-school principals in Fiji revealed that the majority were over 40 years of age with more men than women occupying the position. More Indians than Fijians or other ethnic groups were in this leadership position. It was also observed that more than 40% of the administrators have only had between one and four years of experience as a principal.

The majority of the respondents (72%) served in schools with over 200 pupils. Approximately 80% of the school administrators were in charge of secondary high schools.

Most principals (72%) had received their most recent formal education more than five years before the survey was taken. The area of concentration studied in undergraduate courses by the majority of the school administrators was education and/or social science.

Assessment of Needs for Leadership Training

The Leadership Training Needs Survey questionnaire used in this study included skills and knowledge amenable to improvement by education and training. The respondents were presented with the statement: "Listed below are many of the skills needed to perform the principal's leadership role. Considering the problems faced by the principal today, please give your perception of significant needs for leadership training."

Each item was accompanied by a Likert-type five-point scale in which 5 represented the most critical need for training and 1 the least critical need.

The priority responses of the principals to the 33 leadership skills provided the data needed to answer the overriding question presented in the study. "What do secondary principals perceive to be their significant needs for leadership training?" It should be noted that the term "significant" is not intended to be used statistically but rather in a descriptive sense.

The data presented in Table 2 indicates the frequencies and percentages of responses made by school

TABLE 2

NEEDS FOR ADDITIONAL LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR PRINCIPALS
RANKED IN PRIORITY

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank Order	Frequency * and Percentage ** High 5	4	3	Low 2	1	Mean Weight
20	Build a high level of staff morale and performance	1	* 60 ** 54.5	18 16.4	17 15.5	12 10.9	3 2.7	4.09
16	Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff	2	51 47.2	24 22.2	22 20.4	11 10.2	- -	4.06
18	Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning	3	51 46.4	29 26.4	16 14.5	13 11.8	1 0.9	4.05
10	Provide in-service education for instructional personnel	4	41 37.3	35 31.8	26 23.6	7 6.4	1 0.9	3.98
29	Provide professional opportunities for the staff	5	46 41.8	33 30.0	16 14.5	12 10.9	3 2.7	3.97
12	Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation	6	44 40.0	30 27.3	24 21.8	10 9.1	2 1.8	3.95
5	Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives	7	43 39.1	29 26.4	26 23.6	9 8.2	3 2.7	3.91
6	Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals	8.5	36 32.7	39 35.5	24 21.8	9 8.2	2 1.8	3.89

TABLE 2 -- Continued

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank Order	Frequency * and Percentage ** High 5	4	3	Low 2	1	Mean Weight
21	Develop long range planning evaluation of school programs	8.5	* 39 ** 35.5	32 29.1	27 24.5	12 10.9	- -	3.89
2	Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program	10	33 30.0	38 34.5	26 23.6	12 10.9	1 0.9	3.82
31	Effectively manage the school budget	11	48 43.6	23 20.9	17 15.5	11 10.0	11 10.0	3.78
3	Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community	12	28 25.5	47 42.7	20 18.2	12 10.9	3 2.7	3.77
8	Develop programs that facilitate positive student social interaction	13	29 26.9	37 34.3	32 29.6	7 6.5	3 2.8	3.76
9	Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs	15	31 28.2	38 34.5	25 22.7	14 12.7	2 1.8	3.75
1	Help staff apply new methods to meet basic skills needs in subject areas	15	27 24.7	43 39.1	29 26.4	8 7.3	3 2.7	3.75
26	Effectively communicate with parents	15	38 34.5	30 27.3	21 19.1	16 14.5	5 4.5	3.73
17	Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identified needs	17	27 24.8	36 33.0	37 33.9	7 6.4	2 1	3.72

TABLE 2 -- Continued

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank Order		Frequency * and Percentage ** High 5	4	3	Low 2	1	Mean Weight
11	Demonstrate knowledge about new instructional materials and systems	18	*	30	31	33	12	2	
			**	27.8	28.7	30.6	11.1	1.9	3.69
24	Stimulate staff to try new ideas	19		28	37	29	12	4	
				25.5	33.6	26.4	10.9	3.6	3.66
25	Utilize strategies for implementing change and innovation	20		22	38	41	7	2	
				20.0	34.5	37.3	6.4	1.8	3.65
14	Evaluate the effectiveness of new instructional materials and systems	21		29	33	27	16	4	
				26.6	30.3	24.8	14.7	3.7	3.61
22	Help staff construct and use tests for evaluation of academic programs	22		29	37	20	18	6	
				26.4	33.6	18.2	16.4	5.5	3.59
23	Develop procedures for involving staff in decision-making	24		28	36	21	21	4	
				25.5	32.7	19.1	19.1	3.6	3.57
32	Help staff effectively use materials and equipment for educational programs	24		27	35	28	14	6	
				24.5	31.8	25.5	12.7	5.5	3.57
7	Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals	24		23	37	33	14	3	
				20.9	33.6	30.0	12.7	2.7	3.57

TABLE 2 -- Continued

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank Order		Frequency * and Percentage ** High 5	4	3	Low 2	1	Mean Weight
30	Develop skills to resolve disagreements involving students, staff, and parents	27	*	40	19	24	16	11	
			**	36.4	17.3	21.8	14.5	10.0	3.55
13	Help community establish criteria for evaluating school effectiveness (accountability)	27		25	37	27	16	5	
				22.7	33.6	24.5	14.5	4.5	3.55
15	Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities	27		34	24	25	20	6	
				31.2	22.0	22.9	18.3	5.5	3.55
27	Develop strategies to overcome staff and community resistance to change	29		23	39	28	13	7	
				20.9	35.5	25.5	11.8	6.4	3.53
19	Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups	31		42	16	17	19	16	
				38.2	14.5	15.5	17.3	14.5	3.45
4	Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public	31		28	23	34	21	4	
				25.5	20.9	30.9	19.1	3.6	3.45
28	Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing	31		35	21	22	23	9	
				31.8	19.1	20.0	20.9	8.2	3.45
33	Manage an effective student recruitment program	33		21	14	35	20	20	
				19.1	12.7	31.8	18.2	18.2	2.96

administrators in each of the five categories in the summated scale. A mean weight score is also presented which would give a total perspective of degree of need. The mean weight score is obtained by giving a weighted value of five to category 5, four to 4, and proceeding in descending order to 1. Thus, the closer the mean weight approaches 5.00, the greater the priority of need for training. Conversely, scores approaching 1.00 indicate lower priority need assigned by the respondents.

Table 2 summarizes the responses to all 33 skills. This is presented in ranked order of needs as indicated by mean weight.

An examination of the table reveals that the principals surveyed identified Item 20: "Build a high level of staff morale and performance," as the most significant need for additional training. Over 70% rated it in the category of 4 and 5. Sixty principals (54.5%) gave it the highest priority possible. Of the remaining respondents, only three (2.7%) considered it a low priority need. The mean weight of 4.09 was the highest mean achieved of all the leadership skills posed for evaluation. This clearly indicated its importance for additional training.

Item 16: "Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff," was given a rating of 5 by more than fifty of the respondents (47.2%), and 24 (22.2%) rated it as 4. None of the principals rated it as 1 or lowest in

need. The mean weight of 4.06 reflects the strength with which principals perceived a need for additional training in this area.

For Item 18: "Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning," 51 principals (46.4%) gave this area of expertise the highest priority rating, and 29 (26.4%) rated it a 4. Only 1 respondent (0.9%) thought it unnecessary for further training. The achievement of a 4.05 mean weight is descriptive of its overall importance.

Of the principals responding to the questionnaire, 76 (69.1%) considered Item 10: "Provide in-service education for instructional personnel," as high in need for additional training. Of this number, 41 (37.3%) gave it the highest rating possible. While registering a mean weight of 3.98, more than 7% of the respondents thought it did not merit any further emphasis for training purposes.

For Item 29: "Provide professional opportunities for the staff," over two-thirds (71.8%) of the school administrators considered this skill a high priority need, with most (41.8%) rating it a 5. At the same time, 2.7% considered it lowest in need. Mean weight was 3.97.

The description given above of the five top-ranked items--20, 16, 18, 10, and 29--revealed that the greatest needs of the secondary principals surveyed were in the areas of human relations and instructional leadership.

Their lowest priority need for additional leadership training were in the skills of communication and managing as indicated by the three lowest-ranked items--4, 28, and 33.

In Item 4: "Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public," the largest single group of leaders responding to the statement (34 persons or 30.9%) did not have a strong opinion as indicated by their ratings of 3. Only 28 principals (25.5%) considered this skill in communication a most important need for training, while 25 (22.7%) perceived it as a low priority need (categories 2 and 1) for greater expertise. The lack of a strong consensus is reflected in the mean weight of 3.45 achieved by this item.

The responses to Item 28: "Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing," were evenly distributed around the 4 , 3, and 2 positions on the scale (19.1%, 20.0% and 20.9%, respectively). The highest need response was 31.8%; the lowest need group was comprised of nine principals (8.2%). The mean weight of 3.45 reflects the scattering pattern of the responses.

In the lowest rated skill, Item 33: "Manage an effective students recruitment program," more than a third (36.4%) of the principals evaluated their need for additional training as low. Only 14 (12.7%) rated it as a

high need, and 21 (19.1%) gave it the top priority need. Thirty-five (31.8%) of the total respondents failed to take a clear position on further training as indicated by their rating of 3 on the scale. This skill was the only one to achieve a mean weight of less than 3.00 on the scale. Mean weight was 2.96.

High Priority Needs

Of the 33 leadership skills presented for evaluation by principals, 31 were perceived to be high priority needs by at least 50% of the respondents. The determination of high priority was arrived at by collapsing the responses to the 4 and 5 categories on the Likert scale. The percentages are based on the actual number responding to the item. Only two skills failed to be selected for inclusion. Thus by conforming to judgments made by the majority of responding principals, 31 areas of expertise were labeled as significant or important with respect to the principals' perceived needs for additional training. The relevant data is presented in Table 3.

Top Twelve Needs for Leadership Training

From the 31 areas of expertise identified, the twelve highest ranked needs were selected and presented in Table 4. A close examination of the table reveals that there were slight differences in the responses between several items. This closeness indicates that there were other

TABLE 3

SIGNIFICANT NEEDS FOR ADDITIONAL LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR PRINCIPALS AS INDICATED BY MAJORITY OF HIGH NEED RESPONSES

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank	N	Percentage*
18	Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning	1	110	72.8
29	Provide professional opportunities for the staff	2	110	71.8
20	Build a high level of staff morale and performance	3	110	70.9
16	Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff	4	108	69.4
10	Provide in-service education for instructional personnel	5	110	69.1
3	Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community	6.5	110	68.2
6	Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals	6.5	110	68.2
12	Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation	8	110	67.3
5	Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives	9	110	65.5
21	Develop long range planning evaluation of school programs	10	110	64.6
2	Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program	11.5	110	64.5
31	Effectively manage the school budget	11.5	110	64.5

TABLE 3 -- Continued

Item No.	Knowledge or Skills	Rank	N	Percentage*
1	Help staff apply new methods to meet basic skills needs in subject areas	13	110	63.6
9	Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs	14	110	62.7
26	Effectively communicate with parents	15	110	61.8
8	Develop programs that faciliate positive student social interaction	16	108	61.1
22	Help staff construct and use tests for evaluation of academic programs	17	110	60.0
24	Stimulate staff to try new ideas	18	110	59.1
23	Develop procedures for involving staff in decision-making	19	110	58.2
17	Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identified needs	20	109	57.8
14	Evaluate the effectiveness of new instructional materials and systems	21	109	56.9
11	Demonstrate knowledge about new instructional materials and systems	22	108	56.5
13	Help community establish criteria for evaluating school effectiveness (accountability)	24	110	56.4
27	Develop strategies to overcome staff and community resistance to change	24	110	56.4

TABLE 3 -- Continued

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank	N	Percentage*
32	Help staff effectively use materials and equipment for educational programs	24	110	56.4
25	Utilize strategies for implementing change and innovation	26.5	110	54.5
7	Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals	26.5	110	54.5
30	Develop skills to resolve disagreements involving students, staff, and parents	28	110	53.6
15	Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities	29	109	53.2
19	Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups	30	110	52.7
28	Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing	31	110	50.9
4	Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public	32	110	46.4
33	Manage an effective student recruitment program	33	110	31.8

* Combined percentage of High Need Scale ratings of 4 and 5

TABLE 4

TOP TWELVE NEEDS FOR ADDITIONAL LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR PRINCIPALS AS INDICATED BY MAJORITY OF HIGH NEED RESPONSES

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank	N	Percentage*
18	Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning	1	110	72.8
29	Provide professional opportunities for the staff	2	110	71.8
20	Build a high level of staff morale and performance	3	110	70.9
16	Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff	4	108	69.4
10	Provide in-service education for instructional personnel	5	110	69.1
3	Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community	6.5	110	68.2
6	Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals	6.5	110	68.2
12	Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation	8	110	67.3
5	Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives	9	110	65.5
21	Develop long range planning evaluation of school programs	10	110	64.6
2	Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program	11.5	110	64.5
31	Effectively manage the school budget	11.5	110	64.5

* Percentage of High Need Scale ratings of 4 and 5

items probably equally important but were ranked only slightly lower.

The twelve specific areas of leadership skills and the percentage of principals who declared their high priority in rank order are as follows: Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning (72.8); Provide professional opportunities for the staff (71.8); Build a high level of staff morale and performance (70.9); Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff (69.4); Provide in-service education for instructional personnel (69.1); Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community (68.2); Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals (68.2); Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation (67.3); Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives (65.5); Develop long-range planning evaluation of school programs (64.6); Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program (64.5); Effectively manage the school budget (64.5). It is evident from the data presented in Table 4 that the majority of the school administrators surveyed indicated that their greatest needs for additional leadership training were in the areas of instructional leadership and human relations.

Low Priority Needs

Valuable insights can also be provided by a further examination of Table 2 concerning priority of needs, and locating those areas of expertise which attracted the fewest low-need evaluation.

The low priority training needs ratings of 1 and 2 were collapsed to form a combined percentage. Based on these percentages of the actual number responding, the investigator identified the six leadership skills that principals most frequently declared as unnecessary for further training. These skills, as presented in Table 5, are: Manage an effective student recruitment program (36.4%); Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups (31.8%); Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing (29.1%); Develop skills to resolve disagreement involving students, staff, and parents (24.5%); Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities (23.8%); Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public (22.7%).

It would appear from examining the data presented in Table 5 that a sizable number of principals would oppose an attempt to designate the above skills as important for additional leadership training at that time.

TABLE 5

SIX LEADERSHIP SKILLS IN WHICH ADDITIONAL TRAINING IS PERCEIVED AS LEAST NEEDED

Item No.	Knowledge or Skill	Rank	N	Percentage*
33	Manage an effective student recruitment program	1	110	36.4
19	Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups	2	110	31.8
28	Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing	3	110	29.1
30	Develop skills to resolve disagreements involving students, staff, and parents	4	110	24.5
15	Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities	5	109	23.8
4	Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public	6	110	22.7

* Combined percentage of Low Need Scale ratings of 1 and 2.

Demographic Analysis of Principals' Needs for Additional Leadership Training

The findings in this section are presented in response to question 2 posed under the purpose of the study in Chapter 1. The presentation of the findings is an attempt to describe the pattern of needs for additional leadership training based upon particular demographic characteristics of the secondary principals surveyed. The decision was made to disregard one of the eight demographic characteristics. The data obtained from the variable, major subject(s) studied in the degree or diploma course(s), provided useful and interesting information for the purpose of constructing a demographic profile of principals in Fiji; however, the paucity and duplicity of response in several categories failed to provide a substantial base for meaningful conclusions.

Of the remaining seven variables (age, sex, ethnic groups, years of experience, school size, school type, and recency of training), the most important needs for additional leadership training were discerned in each category by comparison of responses to the 33 items submitted for evaluation.

Needs for Training Based on Age

Table 6 shows comparisons of responses in percentages and mean weights, in the 33 areas of leadership expertise between principals who were under 40 and those who were

over 40 years of age. Disparities in the responses of these two groups were noted in items 3, 6, 7, and 12, where a difference of 7% or more were observed between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5.

In Item 3: "Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community," the older principals expressed a greater need for training than the younger administrators, as indicated by the difference in their responses to categories 4 and 5--71.2% to 63.9%.

In Item 6: "Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with intent for achieving goals," 75% of the under 40 group compared to 64.3% of the over 40 group rated this skill a high need priority as indicated by their collapsed responses in categories 4 and 5.

In Item 7: "Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals," two-thirds (66.6 %) of the under 40 group gave it a rating of 4 or 5, while only 47.9% of the older principals considered it a high need priority. This accounted for the 3.72 to 3.49 mean weight difference.

For Item 12: "Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation," only 64.4% of the older principals compared to 75% of the younger ones perceived this item a high need priority as indicated by their responses in categories 4 and 5.

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON AGE

Item No.	Age	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
1.	Under 40	25.0	41.7	30.6	.0	2.8	3.87
	Over 40	24.7	37.0	24.7	11.0	2.7	3.70
2.	Under 40	38.9	30.6	16.7	13.9	.0	3.76
	Over 40	26.0	35.6	27.4	9.6	1.4	3.76
3.	Under 40	22.2	41.7	22.2	11.1	2.8	3.70
	Over 40	27.4	43.8	15.1	11.0	2.7	3.82
4.	Under 40	33.3	16.7	25.0	25.0	.0	3.58
	Over 40	21.9	21.9	34.2	16.4	5.5	3.38
5.	Under 40	33.3	33.3	22.2	8.3	2.8	3.86
	Over 40	42.5	21.9	24.7	8.2	2.7	3.93
6.	Under 40	30.6	44.4	16.7	8.3	.0	3.97
	Over 40	34.2	30.1	24.7	8.2	2.7	3.85
7.	Under 40	22.2	44.4	19.4	11.1	2.8	3.72
	Over 40	20.5	27.4	35.6	13.7	2.7	3.49
8.	Under 40	31.4	31.4	28.6	2.9	5.7	3.80
	Over 40	25.0	34.7	30.6	8.2	1.4	3.74
9.	Under 40	25.0	41.7	19.4	8.3	5.6	3.72
	Over 40	30.1	30.1	24.7	15.1	0.1	3.75
10.	Under 40	38.9	33.3	22.2	5.6	.0	4.06
	Over 40	37.0	30.1	24.7	6.8	1.4	3.95
11.	Under 40	31.4	31.4	25.7	11.4	.0	3.83
	Over 40	26.4	27.8	33.3	9.7	2.8	3.65
12.	Under 40	44.4	30.6	11.1	11.1	2.8	4.03
	Over 40	38.4	26.0	26.0	8.2	1.4	3.92
13.	Under 40	13.9	36.1	36.1	13.9	.0	3.50
	Over 40	27.4	31.5	19.2	15.1	6.8	3.58

TABLE 6 -- Continued

Item No.	Age	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
14.	Under 40	30.6	25.0	25.0	16.7	2.8	3.64
	Over 40	25.0	33.3	25.0	12.5	4.2	3.63
15.	Under 40	30.6	19.4	19.4	22.2	8.3	3.42
	Over 40	31.9	23.6	25.0	15.3	4.2	3.64
16.	Under 40	50.0	22.2	13.9	13.9	.0	4.08
	Over 40	46.5	22.5	22.5	8.5	.0	4.07
17.	Under 40	33.3	30.6	22.2	8.3	5.6	3.78
	Over 40	20.8	33.3	40.3	5.6	.0	3.69
18	Under 40	58.3	19.4	5.6	13.9	2.8	4.17
	Over 40	41.1	30.1	17.8	11.0	.0	4.01
19	Under 40	41.7	11.1	19.4	16.7	11.1	3.56
	Over 40	37.0	16.4	13.7	17.8	15.1	3.42
20.	Under 40	61.1	13.9	16.7	5.6	2.8	4.25
	Over 40	52.1	17.8	15.1	13.7	1.4	4.05
21.	Under 40	36.1	33.3	25.0	5.6	.0	4.00
	Over 40	34.2	27.4	24.7	13.7	.0	3.82
22.	Under 40	30.6	36.1	11.1	19.4	2.8	3.72
	Over 40	24.7	32.9	21.9	15.1	5.5	3.56
23.	Under 40	30.6	27.8	19.4	22.2	.0	3.67
	Over 40	23.3	35.6	17.8	17.8	5.5	3.53
24.	Under 40	30.6	33.3	25.0	5.6	5.6	3.78
	Over 40	23.3	34.2	27.4	12.3	2.7	3.63
25.	Under 40	16.7	33.3	38.9	5.6	5.6	3.50
	Over 40	21.9	34.2	37.0	6.8	.0	3.71
26.	Under 40	38.9	22.2	19.4	19.4	.0	3.81
	Over 40	32.9	30.1	19.2	12.3	5.5	3.73

TABLE 6 -- Continued

Item No.	Age	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
27.	Under 40	19.4	33.3	36.1	11.1	.0	3.61
	Over 40	21.9	37.0	20.5	12.3	8.2	3.52
28.	Under 40	38.9	16.7	16.7	16.7	11.1	3.56
	Over 40	28.8	20.5	21.9	23.3	5.5	3.44
29.	Under 40	55.6	19.4	8.3	11.1	5.6	4.08
	Over 40	35.6	35.6	16.4	11.0	1.4	3.93
30.	Under 40	44.4	13.9	19.4	13.9	8.3	3.72
	Over 40	32.9	19.2	23.3	13.7	11.0	3.49
31.	Under 40	44.4	16.7	19.4	13.9	5.6	3.81
	Over 40	43.8	21.9	13.7	8.2	12.3	3.77
32.	Under 40	30.6	22.2	30.6	13.9	2.8	3.64
	Over 40	21.9	37.0	21.9	12.3	6.8	3.55
33.	Under 40	22.2	11.1	36.1	25.0	5.6	3.19
	Over 40	17.8	13.7	30.1	15.1	23.3	2.88

The findings indicate that the younger principals expressed a greater need for additional training in leadership expertise than the older principals. They expressed a greater concern for additional training in the skills of problem-solving and evaluation, while the older principals expressed greater need than their younger counterparts in the skill of communication.

Needs for Training Based on Sex

Table 7 presents comparisons of responses between the women and men principals in percentages and mean weights in the 33 areas for leadership training. Differences between the responses of male and female principals were noted in items 3, 9, 15, 17, and 26, where a disparity of 15% or more was observed between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5.

In Item 3: "Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community," the male principals expressed a greater need for training than their female counterparts, as indicated by their collapsed responses to catergories 4 and 5--72.3% to 42.9%.

Male principals also expressed a greater need than female administrators in Item 26: "Effectively communicate with parents," as shown by the mean weight difference for .43 and the 22% advantage scored by male in the high need categories.

For Item 9: "Translate values and broad educational

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON SEX

Item No.	Sex	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
1.	Male	24.5	38.3	27.7	6.4	3.2	3.74
	Female	28.6	35.7	21.4	14.3	.0	3.79
2.	Male	29.8	36.2	23.4	9.6	1.1	3.84
	Female	28.6	28.6	28.6	14.3	.0	3.71
3.	Male	25.5	46.8	16.0	9.6	2.1	3.84
	Female	28.6	14.3	35.7	14.3	7.1	3.43
4.	Male	25.5	22.3	29.8	19.1	3.2	3.48
	Female	28.6	7.1	42.9	14.3	7.1	3.36
5.	Male	41.5	24.5	23.4	8.5	2.1	3.95
	Female	28.6	28.6	28.6	7.1	7.1	3.64
6.	Male	31.9	35.1	22.3	8.5	2.1	3.86
	Female	35.7	35.7	21.4	7.1	.0	4.00
7.	Male	21.3	31.9	33.0	11.7	2.1	3.59
	Female	14.3	42.9	14.3	21.4	7.1	3.36
8.	Male	26.1	33.7	31.5	5.4	3.3	3.74
	Female	35.7	35.7	14.3	14.3	.0	3.93
9.	Male	25.5	34.0	24.5	13.8	2.1	3.67
	Female	42.9	35.7	14.3	7.1	.0	4.14
10.	Male	35.1	35.1	22.3	6.4	1.1	3.97
	Female	50.0	7.1	35.7	7.1	.0	4.00
11.	Male	29.3	28.3	28.3	12.0	2.2	3.71
	Female	21.4	28.6	42.9	7.1	.0	3.64
12.	Male	39.4	28.7	20.2	9.6	2.1	3.94
	Female	42.9	14.3	35.7	7.1	.0	3.93
13.	Male	21.3	34.0	24.5	14.9	5.3	3.51
	Female	35.7	28.6	21.4	14.3	.0	3.86

TABLE 7 -- Continued

Item No.	Sex	Percentage High 5	Need 4	3	Low 2	Need 1	Mean Weight
14.	Male	28.0	30.1	22.6	15.1	4.3	3.62
	Female	14.3	35.7	35.7	14.3	.0	3.50
15.	Male	31.2	19.4	22.6	20.4	6.5	3.48
	Female	35.7	35.7	28.6	.0	.0	4.07
16.	Male	45.7	21.7	21.7	10.9	-	4.02
	Female	57.1	21.4	14.3	7.1	-	4.29
17.	Male	22.6	33.3	34.4	7.5	2.2	3.67
	Female	42.9	28.6	28.6	.0	.0	4.14
18.	Male	45.7	26.6	13.8	12.8	1.1	4.03
	Female	42.9	28.6	21.4	7.1	.0	4.07
19.	Male	39.4	14.9	16.0	13.8	16.0	3.48
	Female	35.7	14.3	7.1	35.7	7.1	3.36
20.	Male	56.4	16.0	14.9	10.6	2.1	4.14
	Female	50.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	7.1	3.86
21.	Male	35.1	28.7	25.5	10.6	-	3.88
	Female	42.9	28.6	14.3	14.3	-	4.00
22.	Male	25.5	35.1	16.0	18.1	5.3	3.57
	Female	35.7	21.4	28.6	7.1	7.1	3.71
23.	Male	24.5	34.0	19.1	18.1	4.3	3.56
	Female	28.6	28.6	14.3	28.6	.0	3.57
24.	Male	22.3	37.2	25.5	10.6	4.3	3.63
	Female	42.9	7.1	35.7	14.3	.0	3.79
25.	Male	19.1	34.0	38.3	6.4	2.1	3.62
	Female	21.4	35.7	35.7	7.1	.0	3.71
26.	Male	36.2	28.7	17.0	13.8	4.3	3.79
	Female	21.4	21.4	35.7	14.3	7.1	3.36

TABLE 7 -- Continued

Item No.	Sex	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
27.	Male	19.1	36.2	25.5	11.7	7.4	3.48
	Female	28.6	35.7	21.4	14.3	.0	3.79
28.	Male	29.8	19.1	19.1	22.3	9.6	3.37
	Female	42.9	21.4	28.6	7.1	.0	4.00
29.	Male	41.5	29.8	14.9	10.6	3.2	3.96
	Female	42.9	35.7	14.3	7.1	.0	4.14
30.	Male	34.0	17.0	22.3	16.0	10.6	3.48
	Female	50.0	14.3	21.4	7.1	7.1	3.93
31.	Male	40.4	22.3	16.0	11.7	9.6	3.72
	Female	64.3	7.1	14.3	.0	14.3	4.07
32.	Male	23.4	31.9	25.5	12.8	6.4	3.53
	Female	28.6	35.7	21.4	14.3	.0	3.79
33.	Male	18.1	13.8	30.9	19.1	18.1	2.95
	Female	21.4	7.1	42.9	7.1	21.4	3.00

goals into specific operational programs," 78.6% of the female administrators compared to 59.5% of the male considered it a high need priority for additional training. The mean weight comparison was 4.14 to 3.67.

For Item 15: "Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities," 71.4% of the females rated it a high priority need compared to only 50.6% of the males. A difference of .53 in mean weight also reflects this differences in priority of need.

In Item 17: "Develop criteria to select apporpriate innovation to meet identified needs," the female principals clearly indicated that they had a greater need for additional training in this skill than their male counterparts as indicated by the 20.3% difference in the highest need priority (category 5), and with no female rating in the low need categories of 1 and 2.

The findings revealed that while principals of both sexes expressed high priority need for additional training in the skill of instructional leadership, male principals indicated a greater concern for additional training in the skills of communication and female principals expressed a greater need in the skills of goal setting and decision making.

Needs for Training Based on Ethnicity

Table 8 shows comparisons of responses in percentages and mean weights, in the 33 areas of

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON NATIONALITY

Item No.	Ethnic Group	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
1.	Fijian	29.5	40.9	20.5	4.5	4.5	3.86
	Indian	20.8	41.5	30.2	7.5	.0	3.75
	Other	25.0	16.7	33.3	16.7	8.3	3.33
2.	Fijian	34.1	29.5	22.7	13.6	.0	3.84
	Indian	30.2	37.7	24.5	5.7	1.9	3.89
	Other	16.7	41.7	25.0	16.7	.0	3.58
3.	Fijian	22.7	47.7	13.6	11.4	4.5	3.73
	Indian	22.6	45.3	20.8	9.4	1.9	3.77
	Other	50.0	16.7	25.0	8.3	.0	4.08
4.	Fijian	27.3	18.2	27.3	25.0	2.3	3.43
	Indian	24.5	18.9	39.6	13.2	3.8	3.47
	Other	25.0	41.7	8.3	16.7	8.3	3.58
5.	Fijian	43.2	29.5	13.6	9.1	4.5	3.98
	Indian	41.5	17.0	30.2	9.4	1.9	3.87
	Other	16.7	50.0	33.3	.0	.0	3.83
6.	Fijian	31.8	38.6	20.5	6.8	2.3	3.91
	Indian	37.7	28.3	22.6	11.3	.0	3.92
	Other	16.7	50.0	25.0	.0	8.3	3.67
7.	Fijian	25.0	40.9	20.5	9.1	4.5	3.73
	Indian	22.6	24.5	35.8	17.0	.0	3.53
	Other	.0	41.7	41.7	8.3	8.3	3.17
8.	Fijian	37.2	25.6	30.2	2.3	4.7	3.88
	Indian	21.2	38.5	30.8	7.7	1.9	3.69
	Other	16.7	50.0	16.7	16.7	.0	3.67
9.	Fijian	40.9	18.2	29.5	9.1	2.3	3.86
	Indian	20.8	43.4	15.1	18.9	1.9	3.62
	Other	16.7	50.0	33.3	.0	.0	3.83
10.	Fijian	29.5	31.8	25.0	11.4	2.3	3.75
	Indian	45.3	30.2	22.6	1.9	.0	4.19
	Other	33.3	33.3	25.0	8.3	.0	3.92

TABLE 8 -- Continued

Item No.	Ethnic Group	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
11.	Fijian	28.6	23.8	33.3	11.9	2.4	3.64
	Indian	34.0	32.1	24.5	9.4	.0	3.91
	Other	.0	33.3	41.7	16.7	8.3	3.00
12.	Fijian	50.0	22.7	15.9	6.8	4.5	4.07
	Indian	35.8	30.2	22.6	11.3	.0	3.91
	Other	25.0	25.0	41.7	8.3	.0	3.67
13.	Fijian	29.5	31.8	25.0	11.4	2.3	3.75
	Indian	17.0	39.6	22.6	15.1	5.7	3.47
	Other	25.0	16.7	25.0	25.0	8.3	3.25
14.	Fijian	29.5	31.8	20.5	15.9	2.3	3.70
	Indian	30.8	30.8	23.1	13.5	1.9	3.75
	Other	.0	25.0	41.7	16.7	16.7	2.75
15.	Fijian	36.4	18.2	27.3	11.4	6.8	3.66
	Indian	32.1	18.9	20.8	22.6	5.7	3.49
	Other	9.1	54.5	18.2	18.2	.0	3.55
16.	Fijian	58.1	7.0	20.9	14.0	-	4.09
	Indian	41.5	30.2	20.8	7.5	-	4.06
	Other	36.4	36.4	18.2	9.1	-	4.00
17.	Fijian	25.0	34.1	34.1	4.5	2.3	3.75
	Indian	22.6	32.1	34.0	9.4	1.9	3.64
	Other	36.4	36.4	27.3	.0	.9	4.09
18.	Fijian	52.3	25.0	11.4	9.1	2.3	4.16
	India	41.5	30.2	15.1	13.2	.0	4.00
	Other	41.7	16.7	25.0	16.7	.0	3.83
19	Fijian	34.1	18.2	18.2	15.9	13.6	3.43
	Indian	43.4	11.3	15.1	13.2	17.0	3.51
	Other	33.3	16.7	8.3	33.3	8.3	3.33
20.	Fijian	56.8	20.5	11.4	6.8	4.5	4.18
	Indian	52.8	11.3	17.0	17.0	1.9	3.96
	Other	58.3	25.0	16.7	.0	.0	4.42

TABLE 8 -- Continued

Item No.	Ethnic Group	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
21.	Fijian	52.3	27.3	13.6	6.8	-	4.25
	Indian	26.4	22.6	35.8	15.1	-	3.60
	Other	16.7	66.7	8.3	8.3	-	3.92
22.	Fijian	38.6	29.5	13.6	15.9	2.3	3.86
	Indian	20.8	37.7	17.0	17.0	7.5	3.47
	Other	8.3	33.3	33.3	16.7	8.3	3.17
23.	Fijian	31.8	36.4	11.4	20.5	.0	3.80
	Indian	22.6	26.4	22.6	20.8	7.5	3.36
	Other	16.7	50.0	25.0	8.3	.0	3.75
24.	Fijian	29.5	31.8	22.7	9.1	6.8	3.68
	Indian	24.5	32.1	26.4	15.1	1.9	3.62
	Other	16.7	41.7	41.7	.0	.0	3.75
25.	Fijian	20.5	43.2	25.0	6.8	4.5	3.68
	Indian	24.5	20.8	47.2	7.5	.0	3.62
	Other	.0	58.3	41.7	.0	.0	3.58
26.	Fijian	45.5	15.9	20.5	18.2	.0	3.89
	Indian	26.4	35.8	17.0	11.3	9.4	3.58
	Other	33.3	33.3	25.0	8.3	.0	3.92
27.	Fijian	31.8	29.5	29.5	9.1	.0	3.84
	Indian	15.1	37.7	18.9	17.0	11.3	3.28
	Other	8.3	50.0	33.3	.0	8.3	3.50
28.	Fijian	29.5	18.2	25.0	18.2	9.1	3.41
	Indian	34.0	18.9	17.0	22.6	7.5	3.49
	Other	33.3	25.0	16.7	16.7	8.3	3.58
29.	Fijian	38.6	36.4	13.6	6.8	4.5	3.98
	Indian	45.3	24.5	13.2	15.1	1.9	3.96
	Other	41.7	33.3	25.0	.0	.0	4.17
30.	Fijian	47.7	11.4	18.2	15.9	6.8	3.77
	Indian	26.4	20.8	22.6	17.0	13.2	3.30
	Other	41.7	16.7	33.3	.0	8.3	3.83

TABLE 8 -- Continued

Item No.	Ethnic Group	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
31.	Fijian	52.3	22.7	9.1	9.1	6.8	4.05
	Indian	35.8	22.6	17.0	9.4	15.1	3.55
	Other	50.0	.0	33.3	16.7	.0	3.83
32.	Fijian	36.4	29.5	20.5	9.1	4.5	3.84
	Indian	18.9	34.0	26.4	13.2	7.5	3.43
	Other	8.3	33.3	33.3	25.0	.0	3.25
33.	Fijian	27.3	11.4	34.1	25.0	2.3	3.36
	Indian	17.0	11.3	30.2	13.2	28.3	2.75
	Other	.0	25.0	33.3	8.3	33.3	2.50

leadership expertise, between principals who were Fijians, Indians, and or other ethnic groups. The following items were identified as having differences of over 10% between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5: items 7, 10, 11, 17, 20, 22, 23, and 31.

In Item 7 : "Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school gaols," the Fijian principals expressed a greater need for training than the other groups, as indicated by the 65.9% response in the high need categories (4 and 5) compared to 47.1% response by the Indians, and 41.7% by the "others".

In Item 10: "Provide in-service education for instructional personnel," 75.5% of the Indian principals considered this skill a high need priority compared to 61.3% Fijians and 66.6% "others".

The Indians also expressed a greater need for additional training than the otner groups in Item 11: "Demonstrate knowledge about new instructional materials and systems." This is indicated by their 66% high need response compared to 52.4% by Fijians and 33.3% by "others". No response was given by Indians in the lowest category.

For Item 17: "Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identifed needs," principals of other ethnic groups expressed the greatest need for additional

training as indicated by a mean weight of 4.09 to 3.75 (Fijians) and 3.64 (Indians). There were 72.8% of "others" to 59.1% of Fijians, and 54.7% of Indians that gave this item a rating of 4 and 5.

Principals of ethnic groups other than Fijians or Indians also rated Item 20: "Build a high level of staff morale and performance," as a skill requiring high need priority. Their expressed need for additional training by a score of 83.3% compared to 77.3% (Fijians) and 64.1% (Indians) and the high mean weight of 4.42 compared to 4.18 (Fijians) and 3.96 (Indians) clearly indicated their position.

In Item 22: "Help staff construct and use tests for evaluation of academic programs," the Fijian school administrators expressed a greater need for training than the other groups as indicated by their response of 38.6% in the highest category compared to 20.8% by Indians and only 8.3% by "others".

For Item 23: "Develop procedures for involving staff in decision-making," both the Fijians and "others" expressed a greater need for additional training than the Indian principals. Their responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5 were: Fijians 68.2%, "others" 66.7%, and Indians 49.0%. Not one principal from among the Fijians or "others" rated it a lowest need compared to 7.5% of the Indian administrators who did so.

The Fijian school administrators expressed a greater

need for training in Item 31: "Effectively manage the school budget," where 75% of the Fijians compared to 58.4% Indians and 50% "others" considered this skill a high need priority for training.

The findings indicated that Fijian principals expressed a greater need for additional leadership training than the other two groups. The findings also indicated that while principals of all ethnic groups expressed a high priority need for training in the area of instructional leadership, the Fijian principals were more concerned than the other groups to have additional training in the areas of evaluation, decision making, and financial management, with "other" principals expressing greater need in the areas of implementing change and human relations. The Indian principals expressed a greater need for training than the other two groups in instructional leadership, specifically in providing in-service education to the staff.

Needs for Training Based on Years of Experience as a Principal

Table 9 presents a comparison of responses in percentages and mean weights, in the 33 areas of leadership expertise, between principals with 1 to 4, 5 to 10, and over 10 years of service. Disparities in responses were noted in six areas of expertise where differences of over 10% occurred between the highest and

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS A PRINCIPAL

Item No.	Years of Experience	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
1.	1-4	17.8	48.9	31.1	.0	2.2	3.80
	5-10	26.7	33.3	20.0	16.7	3.3	3.63
	Over 10	31.4	31.4	25.7	8.6	2.9	3.80
2.	1-4	35.6	31.1	26.7	6.7	.0	3.96
	5-10	26.7	30.0	23.3	16.7	3.3	3.60
	Over 10	25.7	42.9	20.0	11.4	.0	3.83
3.	1-4	28.9	33.3	24.4	11.1	2.2	3.76
	5-10	20.0	40.0	16.7	16.7	6.7	3.50
	Over 10	25.7	57.1	11.4	5.7	.0	4.03
4.	1-4	24.4	15.6	37.8	20.0	2.2	3.40
	5-10	20.0	30.0	20.0	23.3	6.7	3.33
	Over 10	31.4	20.0	31.4	14.3	2.9	3.63
5.	1-4	44.4	24.4	20.0	8.9	2.2	4.00
	5-10	30.0	30.0	26.7	10.0	3.3	3.73
	Over 10	40.0	25.7	25.7	5.7	2.9	3.94
6.	1-4	28.9	37.8	17.8	13.3	2.2	3.78
	5-10	36.7	30.0	26.7	3.3	3.3	3.93
	Over 10	34.3	37.1	22.9	5.7	.0	4.00
7.	1-4	20.0	33.3	31.1	13.3	2.2	3.56
	5-10	20.0	43.3	23.3	10.0	3.3	3.67
	Over 10	22.9	25.7	34.3	14.3	2.9	3.51
8.	1-4	24.4	42.2	24.4	4.4	4.4	3.78
	5-10	33.3	26.7	33.3	3.3	3.3	3.83
	Over 10	24.2	30.3	33.3	12.1	.0	3.67
9.	1-4	28.9	35.6	22.2	11.1	2.2	3.78
	5-10	26.7	30.0	30.0	13.3	.0	3.70
	Over 10	28.6	37.1	17.1	14.3	2.9	3.74
10.	1-4	44.4	26.7	26.7	2.2	.0	4.13
	5-10	33.3	43.3	10.0	10.0	3.3	3.93
	Over 10	31.4	28.6	31.4	8.6	.0	3.83

TABLE 9 -- Continued

Item No.	Years of Experience	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
11.	1-4	29.5	34.1	25.0	9.1	2.3	3.80
	5-10	30.0	23.3	33.3	10.0	3.3	3.67
	Over 10	23.5	26.5	35.3	14.7	.0	3.59
12.	1-4	44.4	22.2	17.8	15.6	.0	3.96
	5-10	33.3	33.3	23.3	6.7	3.3	3.87
	Over 10	40.0	28.6	25.7	2.9	2.9	4.00
13.	1-4	15.6	42.2	22.2	15.6	4.4	3.49
	5-10	20.0	30.0	30.0	16.7	3.3	3.47
	Over 10	34.3	25.7	22.9	11.4	5.7	3.71
14.	1-4	31.1	28.9	26.7	11.1	2.2	3.76
	5-10	16.7	36.7	23.3	16.7	6.7	3.40
	Over 10	29.4	26.5	23.5	17.6	2.9	3.62
15.	1-4	27.3	31.8	22.7	15.9	2.3	3.66
	5-10	33.3	10.0	23.3	26.7	6.7	3.37
	Over 10	34.3	20.0	22.9	14.3	8.6	3.57
16.	1-4	48.8	16.3	23.3	11.6	-	4.02
	5-10	50.0	26.7	16.7	6.7	-	4.20
	Over 10	42.9	25.7	20.0	11.4	-	4.00
17.	1-4	27.3	36.4	25.0	9.1	2.3	3.77
	5-10	23.3	30.0	36.7	10.0	.0	3.67
	Over 10	22.9	31.4	42.9	.0	2.9	3.71
18.	1-4	42.2	31.1	15.6	8.9	2.2	4.02
	5-10	50.0	26.7	10.0	13.3	.0	4.13
	Over 10	48.6	20.0	17.1	14.3	.0	4.03
19.	1-4	33.3	13.3	24.4	13.3	15.6	3.36
	5-10	50.0	3.3	3.3	26.7	16.7	3.43
	Over 10	34.3	25.7	14.3	14.3	11.4	3.57
20.	1-4	53.3	20.0	13.3	8.9	4.4	4.09
	5-10	60.0	10.0	10.0	20.0	.0	4.10
	Over 10	51.4	17.1	22.9	5.7	2.9	4.09

TABLE 9 -- Continued

Item No.	Years of Experience	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
21.	1-4	40.0	33.3	17.8	8.9	-	4.04
	5-10	33.3	20.0	33.3	13.3	-	3.73
	Over 10	31.4	31.4	25.7	11.4	-	3.83
22.	1-4	24.4	35.6	15.6	17.8	6.7	3.53
	5-10	16.7	36.7	23.3	20.0	3.3	3.43
	Over 10	37.1	28.6	17.1	11.4	5.7	3.80
23.	1-4	26.7	28.9	20.0	20.0	4.4	3.53
	5-10	23.3	36.7	10.0	23.3	6.7	3.47
	Over 10	25.7	34.3	25.7	14.3	.0	3.71
24.	1-4	26.7	33.3	26.7	11.1	2.2	3.71
	5-10	26.7	26.7	23.3	16.7	6.7	3.50
	Over 10	22.9	40.0	28.6	5.7	2.9	3.74
25.	1-4	20.0	40.0	31.1	6.7	2.2	3.69
	5-10	13.3	33.3	43.3	10.0	.0	3.50
	Over 10	25.7	28.6	40.0	2.9	2.9	3.71
26.	1-4	31.1	31.1	13.3	15.6	8.9	3.60
	5-10	33.3	20.0	26.7	16.7	3.3	3.63
	Over 10	40.0	28.6	20.0	11.4	.0	3.97
27.	1-4	13.3	44.4	22.2	8.9	11.1	3.40
	5-10	26.7	26.7	30.0	13.3	3.3	3.60
	Over 10	25.7	31.4	25.7	14.3	2.9	3.63
28.	1-4	35.6	15.6	22.2	15.6	11.1	3.49
	5-10	30.0	20.0	13.3	26.7	10.0	3.33
	Over 10	28.6	22.9	22.9	22.9	2.9	3.51
29.	1-4	35.6	31.1	20.0	8.9	4.4	3.84
	5-10	53.3	20.0	10.0	16.7	.0	4.10
	Over 10	40.0	37.1	11.4	8.6	2.9	4.03
30.	1-4	40.0	11.1	17.8	20.0	11.1	3.49
	5-10	33.3	16.7	23.3	10.0	16.7	3.40
	Over 10	34.3	25.7	25.7	11.4	2.9	3.77

TABLE 9 -- Continued

Item No.	Years of Experience	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
31.	1-4	44.4	20.0	15.6	8.9	11.1	3.78
	5-10	33.3	20.0	20.0	13.3	13.3	3.47
	Over 10	51.4	22.9	11.4	8.6	5.7	4.06
32.	1-4	22.2	35.6	24.4	15.6	2.2	3.60
	5-10	16.7	26.7	33.3	10.0	13.3	3.23
	Over 10	34.3	31.4	20.0	11.4	2.9	3.83
33.	1-4	17.8	13.3	31.1	17.8	20.0	2.91
	5-10	16.7	6.7	36.7	20.0	20.0	2.80
	Over 10	22.9	17.1	28.6	17.1	14.3	3.17

lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5. The items were: 3, 15, 16, 21, 31, and 32.

In Item 3: "Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community," those principals with over 10 years of administrative experience expressed greater needs for training than the other two respondent groups. Over 80% considered this a high priority need compared to 62.2% for the 1-4 years, and 60% for the 5-10 years. The mean weight of 4.03 (over 10 years), 3.76 (1-4 years), and 3.50 (5-10 years) reflected the expressed need of the respondents.

In Item 15: "Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities," 59.1% of the least experienced group considered this a high need categories 4 and 5 priority for additional training compared to 43.3% for the 5-10 years, and 54.3% for the over 10 years.

Principals with 5-10 years of service expressed greater needs for training than the other two groups in Item 16: "Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff," where 76.7% of them gave a high need (categories 4 and 5) priority rating compared to 65.1% (1-4 years) and 68.6% (over 10 years).

Principals with the fewest years of administrative experience expressed a greater need than the others for additional training in Item 21: "Develop long range

planning evaluation of school programs." The percentage of responses for each group in the high need categories of 4 and 5 were 73.3% (1-4 years) 53.3% (5-10 years), and 62.8% (over 10 years). Not one principal in any of the three groups registered a response in the lowest category.

In Item 31: "Effectively manage the school budget," over half of those principals with over 10 years of administrative experience registered their response in the highest need category of 5, compared to 44.4% of the 1-4 years, and 33.3% of the 5-10 years group. The high mean weight of 4.06 for the over 10 years group is indicative of their strong feeling for additional training in this area. Mean weights of 3.78 and 3.47 are attached to the two groups, 1-4 years and 5-10 years, respectively.

The most experienced school administrators also expressed a greater need for training than the other two groups in Item 32: "Help staff effectively use materials and equipment for educational programs." This is indicated in the responses of 65.7% by the over 10 years group, 57.8% by the 1-4 years, and 43.4% by those in the 5-10 years bracket. The mean weights of 3.60, 3.23, and 3.83 reflected the expressed need of the respondents.

The findings indicated that while those principals with the least experience expressed greater needs for additional training in the areas of decision making and planning, those with a span of 5-10 years of experience

indicated a high priority need in the area of human relations. The most experienced administrators (over 10 years) expressed greater needs for training than the other groups in the areas of communication and financial and facilities management.

Needs for Training Based on Size of School Enrollment

Table 10 presents a comparison of responses in percentages and mean weights between principals of small, medium, and large schools in the 33 areas of leadership expertise. Seven items were identified in which disparities of more than 15% occurred between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5. The items were: 5, 6, 10, 15, 19, 28, and 31.

In Item 5: "Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives," more than half (52.4%) of the principals in medium-sized (enrollment of 201-400) schools registered their response in the highest need category (5), while only 29% of those in small (enrollment of under 200) schools, and 32.4% of principals in large (enrollment of over 400) schools gave similar preference. The high mean score of 4.12 for principals in medium-sized schools also reflected their priority for additional training in this skill.

Item 6: "Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals," was

TABLE 10

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING
BASED ON SIZE OF SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

Item No.	Size	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
1.	Under 200	22.6	35.5	29.0	9.7	3.2	3.65
	201-400	38.1	33.3	23.8	2.4	2.4	4.02
	Over 400	10.8	48.6	27.0	10.8	2.7	3.54
2.	Under 200	41.9	29.0	16.1	12.9	.0	4.00
	201-400	28.6	35.7	23.8	9.5	2.4	3.79
	Over 400	21.6	37.8	29.7	10.8	.0	3.70
3.	Under 200	25.8	41.9	19.4	6.5	6.5	3.74
	201-400	19.0	47.6	19.0	14.3	.0	3.71
	Over 400	32.4	37.8	16.2	10.8	2.7	3.86
4.	Under 200	32.3	16.1	16.1	32.3	3.2	3.42
	201-400	21.4	23.8	38.1	16.7	.0	3.50
	Over 400	24.3	21.6	35.1	10.8	8.1	3.43
5.	Under 200	29.0	19.4	35.5	16.1	.0	3.61
	201-400	52.4	23.8	11.9	7.1	4.8	4.12
	Over 400	32.4	35.1	27.0	2.7	2.7	3.92
6.	Under 200	16.1	41.9	25.8	12.9	3.2	3.55
	201-400	38.1	31.0	21.4	9.5	.0	3.98
	Over 400	40.5	35.1	18.9	2.7	2.7	4.08
7.	Under 200	19.4	38.7	32.3	9.7	.0	3.68
	201-400	23.8	31.0	28.6	14.3	2.4	3.60
	Over 400	18.9	32.4	29.7	13.5	5.4	3.46
8.	Under 200	32.3	32.3	22.6	6.5	6.5	3.77
	201-400	29.3	34.1	31.7	2.4	2.4	3.85
	Over 400	19.4	36.1	33.3	11.1	.0	3.64
9.	Under 200	19.4	32.3	29.0	16.1	3.2	3.48
	201-400	38.1	35.7	11.9	11.9	2.4	3.95
	Over 400	24.3	35.1	29.7	10.8	.0	3.73
10.	Under 200	45.2	35.5	6.5	9.7	3.2	4.10
	201-400	31.0	31.0	33.3	4.8	.0	3.88
	Over 400	37.8	29.7	27.0	5.4	.0	4.00

TABLE 10 -- Continued

Item No.	Size	Percentage High 5	Need 4	3	Low 2	Need 1	Mean Weight
11.	Under 200	30.0	23.3	26.7	16.7	3.3	3.60
	201-400	28.6	35.7	26.2	9.5	.0	3.83
	Over 400	25.0	25.0	38.9	8.3	2.8	3.61
12.	Under 200	29.0	25.8	25.8	16.1	3.2	3.61
	201-400	45.2	33.3	11.9	7.1	2.4	4.12
	Over 400	43.2	21.6	29.7	5.4	.0	4.03
13.	Under 200	19.4	32.3	29.0	12.9	6.5	3.45
	201-400	23.8	38.1	23.8	11.9	2.4	3.69
	Over 400	24.3	29.7	21.6	18.9	5.4	3.49
14.	Under 200	16.1	25.8	32.3	25.8	.0	3.32
	201-400	31.0	33.3	19.0	11.9	4.8	3.74
	Over 400	30.6	30.6	25.0	8.3	5.6	3.72
15.	Under 200	22.6	6.5	32.3	25.8	12.9	3.00
	201-400	38.1	28.6	11.9	16.7	4.8	3.79
	Over 400	30.6	27.8	27.8	13.9	.0	3.75
16.	Under 200	51.6	16.1	22.6	9.7	-	4.10
	201-400	46.3	26.8	12.2	14.6	-	4.05
	Over 400	44.4	22.2	27.8	5.6	-	4.06
17.	Under 200	19.4	25.8	45.2	9.7	.0	3.55
	201-400	28.6	35.7	21.4	9.5	4.8	3.74
	Over 400	25.0	36.1	38.9	.0	.0	3.86
18.	Under 200	38.7	29.0	19.4	9.7	3.2	3.90
	201-400	47.6	28.6	4.8	19.0	.0	4.05
	Over 400	51.4	21.6	21.6	5.4	.0	4.19
19.	Under 200	41.9	.0	19.4	16.1	22.6	3.23
	201-400	38.1	11.9	21.4	11.9	16.7	3.43
	Over 400	35.1	29.7	5.4	24.3	5.4	3.65
20.	Under 200	48.4	12.9	25.8	9.7	3.2	3.94
	201-400	64.3	14.3	2.4	16.7	2.4	4.21
	Over 400	48.6	21.6	21.6	5.4	2.7	4.08

TABLE 10 -- Continued

Item No.	Size	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
21.	Under 200	41.9	19.4	25.8	12.9	-	3.90
	201-400	38.1	26.2	23.8	11.9	-	3.90
	Over 400	27.0	40.5	24.3	8.1	-	3.86
22.	Under 200	25.8	29.0	16.1	19.4	9.7	3.42
	201-400	26.2	33.3	14.3	21.4	4.8	3.55
	Over 400	27.0	37.8	24.3	8.1	2.7	3.78
23.	Under 200	22.6	32.3	19.4	19.4	6.5	3.45
	201-400	21.4	35.7	19.0	19.0	4.8	3.50
	Over 400	32.4	29.7	18.9	18.9	.0	3.76
24.	Under 200	22.6	32.3	32.3	12.9	.0	3.65
	201-400	19.0	42.9	19.0	9.5	9.5	3.52
	Over 400	35.1	24.3	29.7	10.8	.0	3.84
25.	Under 200	16.1	32.3	41.9	9.7	.0	3.55
	201-400	19.0	31.0	38.1	7.1	4.8	3.52
	Over 400	24.3	40.5	32.4	2.7	.0	3.86
26.	Under 200	38.7	19.4	19.4	16.1	6.5	3.68
	201-400	28.6	33.3	21.4	14.3	2.4	3.71
	Over 400	37.8	27.0	16.2	13.5	5.4	3.78
27.	Under 200	22.6	35.5	25.8	9.7	6.5	3.58
	201-400	16.7	38.1	23.8	16.7	4.8	3.45
	Over 400	24.3	32.4	27.0	8.1	8.1	3.57
28.	Under 200	22.6	12.9	29.0	22.6	12.9	3.10
	201-400	35.7	31.0	7.1	16.7	9.5	3.67
	Over 400	35.1	10.8	27.0	24.3	2.7	3.51
29.	Under 200	41.9	19.4	22.6	12.9	3.2	3.84
	201-400	45.2	31.0	11.9	7.1	4.8	4.05
	Over 400	37.8	37.8	10.8	13.5	.0	4.00
30.	Under 200	38.7	16.1	16.1	19.4	9.7	3.55
	201-400	35.7	14.3	23.8	11.9	14.3	3.45
	Over 400	35.1	21.6	24.3	13.5	5.4	3.68

TABLE 10 -- Continued

Item No.	Size	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
31.	Under 200	45.2	19.4	19.4	9.7	6.5	3.87
	201-400	33.3	23.8	19.0	11.9	11.9	3.55
	Over 400	54.1	18.9	8.1	8.1	10.8	3.97
32.	Under 200	25.8	16.1	35.5	12.9	9.7	3.35
	201-400	28.6	35.7	19.0	11.9	4.8	3.71
	Over 400	18.9	40.5	24.3	13.5	2.7	3.59
33.	Under 200	19.4	9.7	35.5	16.1	19.4	2.94
	201-400	21.4	9.5	31.0	23.8	14.3	3.00
	Over 400	16.2	18.9	29.7	13.5	21.6	2.95

considered a top priority need by principals of larger schools. More than 75% gave it a high need rating (categories 4 and 5) compared to a response of 69.1% by principals of medium-size schools, and 58% by those in small schools. The mean weight figures (4.08 for principals in large schools, 3.98 for those in medium-sized schools, and 3.55 for those in small schoools) also revealed that administrators of large schools expressed a high priority need for training in this area.

In Item 10: "Provide in-service education for instructional personnel," over 80% of the school administrators in small schools gave this item high priority status; only 62% of the respondents in medium-sized schools and 67.5% of those in large schools gave it the same rating. Out of the 33 items submitted for evaluation, the principals of small schools gave the highest rank to this skill as the most important need for additional training.

In Item 15: "Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities," principals of medium-size schools indicated needs for training beyond those of the other groups as reflected in mean scores of 3.79 to 3.00 (small schools) and 3.75 (large schools). The combined response for high need categories 4 and 5 by principals in medium-sized schools was 66.7%, while responses for those in small and large schools were 29.1% and 58.4% respectively.

For Item 19: "Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups," mean weights of 3.65, 3.43, and 3.23 were recorded by large, medium, and small schools, respectively. Well over 60% (64.8) of the administrators in large schools considered it a high need priority (categories 4 and 5) as compared to only 50% of the principals in medium-sized schools and 41.9% of those in small schools. These findings revealed the high need priority expressed by principals in large schools with over 400 pupils.

Principals of medium-sized schools perceived needs for training in excess of the other groups in Item 28: "Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing." This is indicated by a 66.7% response in categories 4 and 5 compared to 45.5% for small schools and 45.9% for large schools.

For Item 31: "Effectively manage the school budget," 73% of principals from large schools, 64.6% of principals from small schools, and 57.1% from medium-sized schools felt they needed more training in this leadership skill. An examination of the mean weights (3.97 for principals in large schools, 3.87 for those in small schools, and 3.55 for those in medium-sized schools) revealed that administrators of large schools expressed a greater need for training in this area.

The findings indicated that principals of medium-

sized schools expressed a greater need for additional leadership training than principals of small and large schools. The principals of medium-sized schools indicated high priority needs for training in the areas of goal setting, decision making, and communication, while those of large schools expressed greater needs in the areas of problem solving, human relations, and financial management. Principals of small schools expressed high priority needs for training than the other two groups in the area of instructional leadership, specifically in the skill of providing in-service education for teachers.

Needs for Training Based on Type of School Organization

Table 11 presents comparison of responses in percentages and mean weights in the 33 areas of leadership expertise, between principals of junior secondary and secondary schools. Identified here are six areas in which disparities of more than 10% occurred between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5. These items were: 2, 5, 14, 21, 28, and 29.

In Item 2: "Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program," junior secondary principals showed greater concern than their counterparts in secondary schools as indicated by the mean scores of 4.17 to 3.72. By combining the responses in the high need end of the scale (categories 4

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON TYPE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Item No.	Organ-ization	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
1.	Junior	21.7	30.4	34.8	8.7	4.3	3.57
	Secondary	25.3	41.4	24.1	6.9	2.3	3.80
2.	Junior	43.5	39.1	8.7	8.7	.0	4.17
	Secondary	26.4	33.3	27.6	11.5	1.1	3.72
3.	Junior	39.1	26.1	26.1	8.7	.0	3.96
	Secondary	21.8	47.1	16.1	11.5	3.4	3.72
4.	Junior	26.1	26.1	13.0	30.4	4.3	3.39
	Secondary	25.3	19.5	35.6	16.1	3.4	3.47
5.	Junior	21.7	30.4	30.4	17.4	.0	3.57
	Secondary	43.7	25.3	21.8	5.7	3.4	4.00
6.	Junior	17.4	52.2	21.7	8.7	.0	3.78
	Secondary	36.8	31.0	21.8	8.0	2.3	3.92
7.	Junior	21.7	39.1	21.7	17.4	.0	3.65
	Secondary	20.7	32.2	32.2	11.5	3.4	3.55
8.	Junior	34.8	34.8	17.4	8.7	4.3	3.87
	Secondary	24.7	34.1	32.9	5.9	2.4	3.73
9.	Junior	26.1	34.8	26.1	13.0	.0	3.74
	Secondary	28.7	34.5	21.8	12.6	2.3	3.75
10.	Junior	47.8	26.1	13.0	13.0	.0	4.09
	Secondary	34.5	33.3	26.4	4.6	1.1	3.95
11.	Junior	40.9	13.6	22.7	22.7	.0	3.73
	Secondary	24.4	32.6	32.6	8.1	2.3	3.69
12.	Junior	30.4	26.1	26.1	17.4	.0	3.70
	Secondary	42.5	27.6	20.7	6.9	2.3	4.01
13.	Junior	17.4	39.1	26.1	13.0	4.3	3.52
	Secondary	24.1	32.2	24.1	14.9	4.6	3.56

TABLE 11 -- Continued

Item No.	Organ-ization	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
14.	Junior	17.4	26.1	26.1	30.4	.0	3.30
	Secondary	29.1	31.4	24.4	10.5	4.7	3.70
15.	Junior	30.4	8.7	26.1	26.1	8.7	3.26
	Secondary	31.4	25.6	22.1	16.3	4.7	3.63
16.	Junior	52.2	17.4	17.4	13.0	-	4.09
	Secondary	45.9	23.5	21.2	9.4	-	4.06
17.	Junior	30.4	26.1	30.4	13.0	.0	3.74
	Secondary	23.3	34.9	34.9	4.7	2.3	3.72
18.	Junior	34.8	34.8	13.0	13.0	4.3	3.83
	Secondary	49.4	24.1	14.9	11.5	.0	4.11
19.	Junior	43.5	4.3	17.4	17.4	17.4	3.39
	Secondary	36.8	17.2	14.9	17.2	13.8	3.46
20.	Junior	39.1	26.1	21.7	8.7	4.3	3.87
	Secondary	58.6	13.8	13.8	11.5	2.3	4.15
21.	Junior	47.8	26.1	17.4	8.7	-	4.13
	Secondary	32.2	29.9	26.4	11.5	-	3.83
22.	Junior	26.1	26.1	13.0	26.1	8.7	3.35
	Secondary	26.4	35.6	19.5	13.8	4.6	3.66
23.	Junior	34.8	26.1	26.1	13.0	.0	3.83
	Secondary	23.0	34.5	17.2	20.7	4.6	3.51
24.	Junior	26.1	30.4	30.4	13.0	.0	3.70
	Secondary	25.3	34.5	25.3	10.3	4.6	3.66
25.	Junior	21.7	30.4	39.1	8.7	.0	3.65
	Secondary	19.5	35.6	36.8	5.7	2.3	3.64
26.	Junior	34.8	21.7	21.7	17.4	4.3	3.65
	Secondary	34.5	28.7	18.4	13.8	4.6	3.75

TABLE 11 -- Continued

Item No.	Organ-ization	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
27.	Junior	26.1	34.8	26.1	8.7	4.3	3.70
	Secondary	19.5	35.6	25.3	12.6	6.9	3.48
28	Junior	21.7	13.0	34.8	21.7	8.7	3.17
	Secondary	34.5	20.7	16.1	20.7	8.0	3.53
29.	Junior	30.4	30.4	17.4	17.4	4.3	3.65
	Secondary	44.8	29.9	13.8	9.2	2.3	4.06
30.	Junior	47.8	8.7	21.7	21.7	.0	3.83
	Secondary	33.3	19.5	21.8	12.6	12.6	3.48
31.	Junior	43.5	21.7	26.1	8.7	.0	4.00
	Secondary	43.7	20.7	12.6	10.3	12.6	3.72
32.	Junior	30.4	17.4	34.8	13.0	4.3	3.57
	Secondary	23.0	35.6	23.0	12.6	5.7	3.57
33.	Junior	26.1	8.7	39.1	21.7	4.3	3.30
	Secondary	17.2	13.8	29.9	17.2	21.3	2.87

and 5) junior secondary principals registered an 82.6% response to the secondary principals' 59.7%.

In Item 5: "Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives," 69% of the secondary group felt a strong need for additional training in this area as compared to only 52.1% of the junior group. In the low need categories (2 and 1), responses of 17.4% by the junior secondary principals and 9.1% by the secondary principals were recorded. Mean weight figures showed 4.00 for the secondary and 3.57 for the junior group. These findings revealed the high need priority expressed by principals of secondary schools.

For Item 14: "Evaluate the effectiveness of new instructional materials and system," the administrators of secondary schools expressed a greater need for additional training than junior secondary principals as indicated by a mean weight of 3.70 to 3.30. Over 60% of the secondary group indicated high priority need for this item compared to only 43.5% of the junior group.

In Item 21: "Develop long-range planning evaluation of school programs," principals of junior secondary schools indicated needs for training beyond those of principals in secondary schools as reflected in mean weight values of 4.13 to 3.83. More than 47% of the junior secondary principals gave this the highest priority rating (category 5) in comparison with 32.2% response by

secondary administrators. Not one principal in both groups registered a response in the lowest category.

Over half (55.2%) of the respondents in secondary schools compared to only 34.7% of those in junior secondary schools responded in the high need categories to Item 28: "Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing." The high priority for additional training placed on this skill by the secondary group is also indicated by the mean weight value of 3.53 to 3.17.

The mean weight for Item 29: "Provide professional opportunities for staff," reveals a score of 4.06 for the secondary and 3.65 for the junior group. With about 75% of the secondary principals compared to 60.9% of the junior group registering their responses in the high need categories (4 and 5), it is quite clear who had greater concern for additional training in this leadership area.

The findings indicated that principals in charge of secondary schools had more needs for additional training than principals in junior secondary schools. While both groups expressed high priority needs in the area of instructional leadership, the secondary principals were highly in need of additional training in the the areas of goal setting, evaluation, staff development, and personal communication skills. Junior secondary principals reported greater needs in the areas of school communication and planning than principals in secondary high schools.

Needs for Training Based on Principals' Recent Educational Training

Table 12 shows comparisons of responses in percentages and mean weights in the 33 areas of leadership expertise based on school administrators' recent educational training experience. Identified here are six items in which disparities of 15% or more were observed between the highest and lowest responses in the high need categories of 4 and 5. These were items: 6, 9, 18, 26, 27, and 29.

For Item 6: "Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals," the principals who received training within the last four years expressed a greater need for additional training than the other groups. This is indicated by an 83.9% response in the high need categories (4 and 5) compared to ratings of 68.3% given by those trained between 5-10 years ago, and 55.2% by those trained over 10 years ago. With not one principal registering a response for lowest need, and a high mean weight of 4.26, it is quite clear that the principals trained within the last four years were more desirous to get additional training in this skill.

Principals who received training within the past four years also expressed a greater need for training than the other groups in Item 9: "Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs." The high need response of 77.4% and mean weight of 3.90

TABLE 12

COMPARISON OF NEEDS FOR LEADERSHIP TRAINING BASED ON PRINCIPALS' RECENT EDUCATIONAL TRAINING EXPERIENCE

Item No.	Training	Percentage					Mean Weight
		High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	
1.	1-4	22.6	41.9	42.3	3.2	.0	3.84
	5-10	26.8	39.0	19.5	9.8	4.9	3.73
	Over 10	23.7	36.8	28.9	7.9	2.6	3.71
2.	1-4	38.7	29.0	22.6	9.7	.0	3.97
	5-10	31.7	36.6	14.6	14.6	2.4	3.80
	Over 10	21.1	36.8	34.2	7.9	.0	3.71
3.	1-4	25.8	45.2	16.1	9.7	3.2	3.81
	5-10	22.0	41.5	17.1	14.6	4.9	3.61
	Over 10	28.9	42.1	21.1	7.9	.0	3.92
4.	1-4	25.8	22.6	32.3	16.1	3.2	3.52
	5-10	24.4	22.0	31.7	22.0	.0	3.49
	Over 10	26.3	18.4	28.9	18.4	7.9	3.37
5.	1-4	35.5	32.3	22.6	6.5	3.2	3.90
	5-10	41.5	29.3	14.6	9.8	4.9	3.93
	Over 10	39.5	18.4	32.2	7.9	.0	3.89
6.	1-4	45.2	38.7	12.9	3.2	.0	4.26
	5-10	26.8	41.5	19.5	9.8	2.4	3.80
	Over 10	28.9	26.3	31.6	10.5	2.3	3.68
7.	1-4	19.4	41.9	22.6	12.9	3.2	3.61
	5-10	17.1	34.1	34.1	12.2	2.4	3.51
	Over 10	26.3	26.3	31.6	13.2	2.6	3.61
8.	1-4	25.8	29.0	35.5	3.2	6.5	3.65
	5-10	32.5	32.5	30.0	2.5	2.5	3.90
	Over 10	21.6	40.5	24.3	13.5	.0	3.70
9.	1-4	29.0	48.4	9.7	9.7	3.2	3.90
	5-10	26.8	36.6	22.0	12.2	2.4	3.73
	Over 10	28.9	21.1	34.2	15.8	.0	3.63
10.	1-4	41.9	35.5	22.6	.0	.0	4.19
	5-10	36.6	26.8	24.4	9.8	2.4	3.85
	Over 10	34.2	34.2	23.7	7.9	.0	3.95

TABLE 12 -- Continued

Item No.	Training	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
11.	1-4	23.3	40.0	33.3	3.3	.0	3.83
	5-10	29.3	24.4	29.3	14.6	2.4	3.63
	Over 10	29.7	24.3	29.7	13.5	2.7	3.65
12.	1-4	45.2	29.0	12.9	12.9	.0	4.06
	5-10	34.1	31.7	24.4	4.9	4.9	3.85
	Over 10	42.1	21.1	26.3	10.5	.0	3.95
13.	1-4	6.5	38.7	38.7	12.9	3.2	3.32
	5-10	36.6	29.3	12.2	17.1	4.9	3.76
	Over 10	21.1	34.2	26.3	13.2	5.3	3.53
14.	1-4	29.0	35.5	22.6	12.9	.0	3.81
	5-10	22.5	25.0	25.0	22.5	5.0	3.38
	Over 10	28.9	31.6	26.3	7.9	5.3	3.71
15.	1-4	38.7	16.1	22.6	22.6	.0	3.71
	5-10	22.0	34.1	17.1	17.1	9.8	3.41
	Over 10	35.1	13.5	29.7	16.2	5.4	3.57
16.	1-4	51.6	19.4	19.4	9.7	-	4.13
	5-10	42.5	25.0	22.5	10.0	-	4.00
	Over 10	48.6	21.6	18.9	10.8	-	4.08
17.	1-4	29.0	32.3	25.8	9.7	3.2	3.74
	5-10	24.4	34.1	34.1	4.9	2.4	3.73
	Over 10	21.6	32.4	40.5	5.4	.0	3.70
18.	1-4	54.8	29.0	6.5	9.7	.0	4.29
	5-10	46.3	17.1	19.5	14.6	2.4	3.90
	Over 10	39.5	34.2	15.8	10.5	.0	4.03
19.	1-4	41.9	16.1	9.7	22.6	9.7	3.58
	5-10	41.5	14.6	17.1	12.2	14.6	3.56
	Over 10	31.6	13.2	18.4	18.4	18.4	3.21
20.	1-4	61.3	9.7	12.9	12.9	3.2	4.13
	5-10	46.3	29.3	9.8	9.8	4.9	4.02
	Over 10	57.9	7.9	23.7	10.5	.0	4.13

TABLE 12 -- Continued

Item No.	Training	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
21.	1-4	41.9	19.4	29.0	9.7	-	3.94
	5-10	34.1	36.6	17.1	12.2	-	3.93
	Over 10	31.6	28.9	28.9	10.5	-	3.82
22.	1-4	29.0	38.7	9.7	22.6	.0	3.74
	5-10	19.5	36.6	22.0	14.6	7.3	3.46
	Over 10	31.6	26.3	21.1	13.2	7.9	3.61
23.	1-4	32.3	25.8	16.1	22.6	3.2	3.61
	5-10	12.2	41.5	26.8	14.6	4.9	3.41
	Over 10	34.2	28.9	13.2	21.1	2.6	3.71
24.	1-4	38.7	29.0	9.7	16.1	6.1	3.77
	5-10	17.1	31.7	41.5	7.3	2.4	3.54
	Over 10	23.7	39.5	23.7	10.5	2.6	3.71
25.	1-4	25.8	22.6	38.7	9.7	3.2	3.58
	5-10	17.1	41.5	36.6	2.4	2.4	3.68
	Over 10	18.4	36.8	36.8	7.9	.0	3.66
26.	1-4	41.9	19.4	12.9	22.6	3.2	3.74
	5-10	24.4	24.4	29.3	17.1	4.9	3.46
	Over 10	39.5	36.8	13.2	5.3	5.3	4.00
27.	1-4	19.4	29.0	22.6	22.6	6.5	3.32
	5-10	22.0	34.1	26.8	9.8	7.3	3.54
	Over 10	21.1	41.1	26.3	5.3	5.3	3.68
28.	1-4	48.4	9.7	19.4	16.1	6.5	3.77
	5-10	26.8	29.3	9.8	19.5	14.6	3.34
	Over 10	23.7	15.8	31.6	26.3	2.6	3.32
29.	1-4	61.3	22.6	3.2	12.9	.0	4.32
	5-10	34.1	29.2	22.0	7.3	7.3	3.76
	Over 10	34.2	36.8	15.8	13.2	.0	3.92
30.	1-4	41.9	19.4	12.9	16.1	9.7	3.68
	5-10	31.7	12.2	24.4	19.5	12.2	3.32
	Over 10	36.8	21.1	26.3	7.9	7.9	3.71

TABLE 12 -- Continued

Item No.	Training	Percentage High Need 5	4	3	Low Need 2	1	Mean Weight
31.	1-4	54.8	12.9	12.9	6.5	12.9	3.90
	5-10	24.4	34.1	19.5	14.6	7.3	3.54
	Over 10	55.3	13.2	13.2	7.9	10.5	3.95
32.	1-4	25.8	29.0	35.5	9.7	.0	3.71
	5-10	26.8	34.1	19.5	17.1	2.4	3.66
	Over 10	21.1	31.6	23.7	10.5	13.2	3.37
33.	1-4	22.6	22.6	25.8	19.4	9.7	3.29
	5-10	17.1	9.8	34.1	17.1	22.0	2.83
	Over 10	18.4	7.9	34.2	18.4	21.1	2.84

compared to that of those trained 5-10 years ago (53.4%, 3.73) and over 10 years (50%, 3.63), clearly showed the concern the 1-4 years group had for training in this skill.

Item 18: "Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning," was also considered to be a high priority need by principals trained within the last four years as indicated by a combined (4 and 5) high need response of 83.8% and mean weight of 4.29. The percentages of responses in the high need categories by the 5-10 and over 10 years groups were 63.4% and 73.7%, respectively. The newly trained administrators expressed a much stronger desire for additional training in this area than the other groups of respondents.

With a mean weight score of 4.00, compared to 3.74 (for the 1-4 group) and 3.46 (for the 5-10 group), principals trained over 10 years ago expressed their strong feeling for additional training in Item 26: "Effectively communicate with parents." Their combined response in the high need categories (4 and 5) was 76.3% compared to 61.3% (1-4 group) and 48.8% (5-10 group).

Principals trained over 10 years ago expressed a greater need for training in Item 27: "Develop strategies to overcome staff and community resistance to change." This is indicated by their 62.2% response in the high need as compared to 48.4% and 56.1% given by the 1-

4 and 5-10 years groups, respectively.

In Item 29: "Provide professional opportunities for the staff," over 83% of the principals trained in the last four years rated this item as high need priority for addtional training, while 71% of those trained more than 10 years ago, and 63.3% of the 5-10 years group gave it the same priority. The high mean weight of 4.32 registered for the 1-4 years group compared to 3.92 (over 10 years) and 3.76 (5-10 years group) is indicative of their preference for additional training in this area.

The findings indicated that those principals recently involved in educational training expressed greater needs for additional leadership training than the other groups. Principals who received training within the last four years reported greater needs for training in the areas of problem solving, goal setting, and instructional leadership, while those trained over 10 years ago expressed greater needs for training in the skills of communication and implementing change.

Past Sources of Principals' Expertise

The third question posed in this study sought to determine what secondary principals in Fiji perceived to be the most effective sources of their leadership expertise.

Ten sources of leadership knowledge and skills commonly associated with the training of educational

leaders were submitted by the investigator for evaluation. The respondents were presented with the statement: "Please evaluate the relative effectiveness of the following experiences or agencies in contributing to your present level of expertise as an educational leader." They were requested to rate each of these sources on a five-point Likert scale.

A sixth response category of "lack information to judge" was included since it was reasonable to assume that not all principals may have had any experience with all the sources presented for evaluation.

The findings regarding relative effectiveness of various sources are summarized and ranked according to mean weight in Table 13.

The results indicate that On-the-Job Experience was the source of leadership effectiveness that attracted the top rating of 58.2% of the secondary principals. Another 30% agreed that it was an effective source. Eleven principals (10%) took the middle position, and only two (1.8%) considered it ineffective. Not one respondent marked category 1. The near unanimity of evaluation in this area is reflected by a high mean value of 4.45.

The effectiveness of Teaching Experience was revealed by a mean weight of 4.24. Forty-eight principals (43.6% gave it a 5 rating and an additional number of 44 (40%) agreed that it was very useful, rating it with a 4. A rating of 3 was given by 13.6% of the respondents, while

TABLE 13

RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF PAST SOURCES OF PRINCIPALS' EXPERTISE

Rank	Agency or Experience		Frequency * and Percentage ** Effective 5	4	3	Ineffective 2	1	Mean Weight
1	On-the-Job Experience	*	64	33	11	2		
		**	58.2	30.0	10.0	1.8	-	4.45
2	Teaching Experience		48	44	15	2	1	
			43.6	40.0	13.6	1.8	0.9	4.24
3	Deputy-Principalship		42	33	17	6	5	
			40.8	32.0	16.5	5.8	4.9	3.98
4	In-service Training		48	23	23	7	5	
			45.3	21.7	21.7	6.6	4.7	3.96
5	College or University Courses		43	28	20	8	7	
			40.6	26.4	18.9	7.5	6.6	3.87
6	Administrative Internship		30	33	23	7	7	
			30.0	33.0	23.0	7.0	7.0	3.72
7	Rap Sessions with Colleagues		22	35	34	10	2	
			20.8	35.8	32.1	9.4	1.9	3.64
8	Conferences or Conventions		27	38	24	12	7	
			25.0	35.2	22.2	11.1	6.5	3.61
9	Experiences Other Than Education		26	31	25	13	8	
			25.2	30.1	24.3	12.6	7.8	3.52
10	Independent Study		26	30	30	15	4	
			24.8	28.6	28.6	14.3	3.8	3.46

1.8% rated it a 2. Only one principal (0.9%) marked category 1.

With regard to Deputy-Principalship more than 70% (72.8) considered it highly effective, while only 10% (10.9) rated it with either a 2 or 1. Over 16% (16.5) rated it neither high or low in effectiveness. With a mean weight of 3.98, this experience ranked third in effectiveness as a past source of leadership expertise.

Over 45% (45.3) of the educational leaders rated In-Service Training to have been a most effective source of their skill, and an additional 21.7% considered it effective. The same number of respondents (21.7%) rated it moderately effective, 6.6% thought it ineffective, and 4.7% gave it the lowest rating possible. A mean weight of 3.96 is indicative of the overall effectiveness perceived by the respondents.

The evaluations made by principals giving their perception of College and University Courses revealed that over 40% of them considered such work highly effective as a source of expertise, with another 26.4% agreeing that it was an effective source. Of the 14.1% who perceived it as ineffective, 6.6% gave it the lowest rating possible. Fewer than 20% (18.9) of the respondents failed to express a strong feeling on this source as indicated by a 3 rating. The mean weight for this experience was 3.87.

Thirty percent of the school administrators

considered Administrative Internship as a highly effective source of leadership expertise, while 33% rated it effective. The 14% who rated it as ineffective were evenly distributed between the 2 and 1 categories. Twenty-three percent of the respondents failed to express a strong feeling on this source as indicated by a 3 rating. A mean value of 3.72 was achieved.

The effectiveness of Rap Session with Colleagues was revealed by a mean score of 3.64. Over one fifth (20.8% of the administrators considered it effective, giving it a rating of 5, while more than 35% (35.8) agreed that it was very useful. More than 30% (32.1) perceived it as moderately effective, while 9.4% and 1.9% of the administrators score it in the categories 2 and 1, respectively.

Evaluation of Conferences or Conventions indicated percentage responses in descending order of relative effectiveness of 25.0, 35.2, 22.2, 11.1, and 6.5. A mean weight of 3.61 is indicative of the overall effectiveness perceived by the respondents.

The evaluation of Experiences other than in Education in descending order of relative effectiveness (5 to 1) were as follows: 25.2%, 30.1%, 24.3%, 12.6% and 7.8%. A mean value of 3.52 was achieved.

Approximately a quarter (24.8%) of the school leaders rated Independent Study to have been a most effective source of their skill, while an additional 28.6% gave it a

rating of 4. The same percentage (28.6) took a compromising position, by giving it a 3, and 18.1% considered it ineffective, of which 3.8% gave it a rating of 1. The tendency for the evaluations to cluster around the middle of the scale is reflected in the mean weight of 3.46.

Effective Agencies

In responding to the question, "What are the effective sources of a principal's expertise?" the Majority Criterion was used. This was determined by the attraction of a response of at least 50% of number responding to the item in the Effective categories indicated by 4 and 5 on the Likert-type scale.

An examination of Table 14 indicates that all ten experiences or agencies were labeled effective as past sources of leadership expertise by the principals who responded. Ranked as effective in order of priority, these were: On-the-Job Experience (88.2%); Teaching Experience (83.6%); Deputy-Principalship (72.8%); In-Service Training (67.0%); Administrative Internship (63.0%); College or University Courses (60.2%); Conferences or Conventions (60.2%); Rap Sessions with Colleagues (56.6%); Experiences Other Than in Education (55.3%); and Independent Study (53.4%).

The findings indicated that On-the-Job Experience was declared the most effective source of a principal's

TABLE 14

EFFECTIVE SOURCES OF EXPERTISE FOR PRINCIPALS

Rank	Agency or Experience	N	Percentage*
1	On-the-Job Experience	110	88.2
2	Teaching Experience	110	83.6
3	Deputy-Principalship	103	72.8
4	In-Service Training	106	67.0
5	Administrative Internship	100	63.0
6.5	College or University Courses	106	60.2
6.5	Conferences or Conventions	108	60.2
8	Rap Sessions with Colleagues	106	56.6
9	Experiences Other Than in Education (e.g., Religion, Military, Business)	103	55.3
10	Independent Study	105	53.4

* Combined percentage responses in High Effectiveness Scale ratings of 4 and 5.

expertise, followed by Teaching Experience, Deputy-Principalship, and In-service Training.

Sources of Assistance to Principals

The fourth question posed in this study is directed to the issue of where the secondary principals in Fiji look for help in order to improve their leadership expertise.

The respondents were given four agencies or organizations normally thought to be sources of assistance to school leaders in the country. They were asked to respond to the following statement: "Please evaluate the following agencies or sources of assistance to improve your expertise as an educational leader."

Table 15 details the principals' evaluation of these agencies as to their relative effectiveness. These findings indicate that In-Service Training was perceived as a very effective source by almost half of the respondents (48.6%). Another 27.1% regarded this agency as reasonably effective as a means of helping principals improve their skillfulness in performing the leadership role. The lowest rating was given by 3.7%, with an equal number (3.7%) giving it a rating of 2. Over 16% (16.8) took no strong position as to effectiveness and ineffectiveness. A mean weight response of 4.13 indicates a summary response of principals to this agency as a source of assistance.

TABLE 15

RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF AGENCIES AS POTENTIAL SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE FOR PRINCIPALS

Rank	Agency or Experience		Frequency * and Percentage ** Effective 5	4	3	Ineffective 2	1	Mean Weight
1	In-service Training	*	52	29	18	4	4	
		**	48.6	27.1	16.8	3.7	3.7	4.13
2	Colleges or Universities		46	36	19	2	6	
			42.2	33.0	17.4	1.8	5.5	4.05
3	Professional Association Meetings		42	32	24	8	3	
			38.5	29.4	22.0	7.3	2.8	3.94
4	Ministry of Education Programs		20	34	32	16	5	
			18.7	31.8	29.9	15.0	4.7	3.45

Colleges or Universities achieved a mean weight value of 4.05 as to effectiveness as a source of assistance. It was thought very effective by 42.2% and 33.0% (scale ratings of 5 and 4, respectively); 17.4% rated it 3, 1.8% and 5.5% (scale ratings of 2 and 1, respectively) rated it ineffective.

Professional Association Meetings or Conferences drew a highest rating response of 38.5% as to effectiveness. Almost 30% (29.4) of the administrators tended toward agreement. Not sure were 22%; 7.3% tended toward rating it ineffective, and 2.8% indicated very low effectiveness. A mean weight of 3.94 was registered as an overall indicator of how this fairly common professional activity was perceived.

Ministry of Education Program or Activities received ineffective ratings from almost 18.7% of the respondents. Although well over a quarter (29.9%) expressed a middle position, more than 30% (31.8) gave it a rating of 4, while 18.7% perceived it to be a very effective source of assistance. A mean value of 3.45 is representative of the opinions of principals.

Effective Sources of Assistance

The most effective sources of assistance for leadership expertise was determined by collapsing the responses principals gave for categories 4 and 5. The percentages given are based on the actual number

responding to the item. Table 16 shows that In-Service Training ranked as number one with a 75.7 percent response. Colleges or Universities (75.2%) and Professional Association Meetings or Conferences (67.9%) ranked second and third, respectively. Ministry of Education Programs or Activities, with a 50.5% response, was considered the least effective source of assistance for the principals leadership role.

Summary

This chapter presents the results of the study. The secondary-school principals of Fiji reported that they were not satisfied with their present level of leadership expertise and expressed a high priority need for additional leadership training in the skills of instructional leadership and human relations/staff personnel development.

An analysis of the data on the effective past sources of principals' expertise revealed that On-the-Job Experience, Teaching Experience, and Deputy-Principalship were declared the most valuable.

The principals also considered In-service Training and Colleges or Universities as their most effective sources of assistance.

A concluding summary, as well as a discussion on the implications of the findings presented, appear in Chapter 5.

TABLE 16

EFFECTIVE SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE
FOR PRINCIPALS

Rank Order	Agency of Experience	N	Percentage*
1	In-Service Training	107	75.7
2	Colleges or Universities	109	75.2
3	Professional Association Meetings or Conferences	109	67.9
4	Ministry of Education Programs or Activities	107	50.5

* Combined percentage responses in High Effectiveness Scale ratings of 4 and 5.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter consists of a summary of the earlier chapters, conclusions, and recommendations. The summary briefly describes the background of the problem, purpose of the study, review of the literature, methodology, and findings. Based on the findings, conclusions and recommendations are given.

Summary

Background of the Problem

The goal of excellence in education for schools can hardly be achieved without effective leadership. Educators as well as other persons who observe the process of formal education agree that the principal has a pivotal role to play in determining the effectiveness of education in a school.

He/she is the main change agent in the educational institution. He/she can no longer be simply the guardian of the status quo. The social and technological changes in society increase the demand for more sophisticated skills of leadership. Hence, the critical need for school

administrators to have leadership skills and leadership training in order to effectively perform their leadership role.

The developing island nations of the South Pacific are faced with a critical shortage of skilled and knowledgeable educational administrators (Bhindi, 1988). The efforts put forth by training agencies to remedy this demand in this region require the assessment of existing needs as perceived by practicing school administrators so that relevant training programs can be designed and conducted. Such is the uniqueness of this study wherein the findings were developed from the perceptions of those persons intended to be the beneficiaries of training programs.

Purpose of the Study

It was the purpose of this study to identify and describe the secondary principal's perceived needs for additional training to more effectively perform leadership roles.

Specifically, this investigation sought answers to the following questions:

1. What are the leadership qualities and behaviors of effective school administrators as identified by educational authors?

2. What patterns of need for leadership expertise emerge based upon particular demographic characteristics of the secondary principals in Fiji?

3. What do principals perceive to be the most effective sources of their leadership expertise?

4. Where do principals look for assistance in order to improve the quality of their leadership role?

5. What insights can be gained that will improve in-service leadership development programs?

An Overview of Related Literature

The chapter on the literature review was divided into 8 sections, beginning with a historical overview and background of the educational system in Fiji. The British who colonized the country for 96 years made certain through their educational system that Western influence left its mark on the social and economic life of the people. Only in recent years, after gaining independence in 1970, have major strides in education come about.

A discussion of the problems of educational administration and the preparation of school administrators in the South Pacific nations was presented next. Faced with a critical shortage of skilled and knowledgeable educational leaders, these newly independent and developing countries are doing what they can to help meet this high demand. The Diploma in Educational

Administration offered by the University of the South Pacific, together with the in-service programs conducted by different local and international agencies are a few of the ways being utilized by countries of the region to improve the qualification and competence of their educational administrators.

The third section portrayed a brief historical perspective of the principalship as it evolved in the United States. The position developed from that of the colonial headmaster whose responsibilities, compared with that of supervising principal, were wide and varied. Developments in the fields of business and social sciences influenced the perceptions, roles, and leadership styles of the principal.

The fourth section briefly dealt with how various authors defined the terms "administration" and "leadership." Their uses have at times raised disputes among educators. Hemphill (1958) and Lipham (1964) attempted to solve this problem by suggesting that in leadership a person takes on the role of change agent, but in administration the role is that of maintaining the organization.

In the fifth section, an overview was given of the contributions made to leadership theory by various individuals and schools of thought. Weber's model for bureaucratic organization, Taylor's scientific management,

the Hawthorne studies on human relations, Barnard's effectiveness and efficiency system, McGregor's theory X and Y, were briefly mentioned.

The sixth section of the review provided a discussion of leadership styles and dimensions. According to Wiles and Bondi (1983), the classic work in leadership styles, leaders are categorized as either autocratic, lassez-faire, or democratic. Two major dimensions of leadership were identified by Halpin and Winer (1959). These were initiating structure and consideration.

A discussion of the importance of the principal's leadership role and skills was provided in the seventh section. The principal as an educational leader is seen by most people as the most important, most influential, and most powerful person in the school. His/her responsibilities are so extensive, and his/her influence so far reaching, that he/she is viewed by many as the key person for getting most things done. Roe and Drake (1980) pointed out that the principal's major role was to provide school leadership in order to improve the quality of life of individuals within the school. To successfully perform this leadership role, it is important that school principals be skilled in three basic areas - conceptual, human, and technical skills.

A discussion on what educational authors said about leadership qualities and behavior of effective school

administrators concluded the chapter. Educational authors studying school leadership in the last twenty years generally agreed that effective schools were the results of the activities of effective principals who demonstrated strong instructional leadership, created positive school climate conducive to learning, and knew how to manage time and people efficiently and effectively.

Methodology

Both the historical and descriptive research designs were used in this study. Computer and documentary data searches were utilized in order to satify research question 1 concerning what educational authors have identified as leadership qualities and behaviors of effective principals in the past 20 years.

A descriptive survey questionnaire was used in this study in order to ascertain the leadership training needs of secondary-school principals in Fiji. Because the focus of this study was on principal leadership functions, emphasis in the development of the questionnaire was given to those leadership actions that involved working with people to accomplish goals of achieving quality education for students.

The Leadership Training Needs Survey instrument was divided into four parts: (1) survey of needs for leadership training, (2) past sources of leadership expertise, (3) sources of assistance for principals, and

(4) demographic information. Following pilot testing and revision, the questionnaire was sent to all 140 secondary principals in Fiji. One hundred and ten (78.5%) completed returns were received. The responses were entered into the Andrews University Computer and processed by the University Center for Research and Statistical Services. The SPSS computer program was used in the analysis which yielded frequency, percentages of responses, and mean weight for each of the eight categories of demographic data.

Findings

The findings of the study are summarized under the following headings: Characteristics of Effective Principals, Significant Needs for Leadership Training, Leadership Needs Based on Demograhic Characteristics, Effective Sources of Principals' Expertise, Sources of Assistance to Principals.

Characteristics of Effective Principals

From a detailed review of literature, the following were identified as the most-often observed leadership characteristics of effective principals:

1. They are aggressive and dynamic as leaders.
2. They function as instructional leaders.
3. They create a climate of high expectations for teachers, staff, and students.

4. They have their organizational goals clearly and precisely defined.

5. They communicate effectively with all constituents.

6. They provide an orderly atmosphere.

7. They frequently assess and evaluate results.

8. They seek means to help staff members grow professionally.

9. They recognize and reinforce others who do outstanding work.

10. They know and accept their own strengths and limitations.

11. They encourage autonomy.

12. They use their time well.

Significant Needs for Leadership Training

An analysis of the data obtained from section 1 of the questionnaire revealed that of the 33 specific leadership skills and knowledges submitted for evaluation, 31 were indicated by the majority of the respondents as achieving a status of high priority need for further training.

From among these identified skills, the top twelve needs were selected and were ranked as particularly important. A close examination of the top-five ranked items reveals that the Fiji secondary-school principals express high priority needs for additional leadership

training in the skills of instructional leadership and human relations/staff development. The top-five ranked items are:

Rank	Item	Knowledge or Skill
1	18	Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning.
2	29	Provide professional opportunities for the staff.
3	20	Build a high level of staff morale and performance.
4	16	Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff.
5	10	Provide in-service education for instructional personnel.

Leadership Needs Based on Demographic Characteristics

1. Principals under the age of 40 expressed a greater need for additional leadership training than those over 40 in the following skills: Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with intent for achieving goals; Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals; and Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation.

The older principals expressed a greater need than the younger ones in item 3: Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community.

The findings indicated that the younger principals expressed a greater need for additional training in leadership expertise than the older principals. They expressed a greater concern for additional training in the skills of problem solving and evaluation, while the older principals expressed greater need than their younger counterparts in the skill of communication.

2. On leadership needs based on sex, female principals expressed greater needs than their male counterparts in the following three skills: Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs; Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities; and Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identified needs.

The male principals, on the other hand, expressed greater needs than women in two other skills: Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community, and Effectively communicate with parents.

The findings revealed that while principals of both sexes expressed high priority need for additional training in the skill of instructional leadership, male principals indicated a greater concern for additional training in the skill of communication; female principals expressed greater needs in the skills of goal setting and decision-making.

3. On leadership needs based on ethnicity, the Fijian principals expressed greater needs for leadership training than Indians and other ethnic groups in the following four skills: Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals; Help staff construct and use tests for evaluation of academic programs; Develop procedures for involving staff in decision making; and Effectively manage the school budget.

Those of other ethnic groups expressed high priority needs in the following skills: Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identified needs; Build a high level of staff morale and performance.

The Indian principals indicated that their need for leadership training was greater than the other groups in two skill items; these were: Provide in-service education for instructional personnel and Demonstrate knowledge about new instructional materials and systems.

The findings indicated that Fijian principals expressed a greater need for additional leadership training in most of the 33 skills than the other two groups. The findings also indicated that while principals of all ethnic groups expressed a high priority need for training in the area of instructional leadership, the Fijians were more concerned than the Indians and "others" to have additional training in the areas of evaluation,

decision making, and financial management. "Other" principals expressed high priority needs in the skills of human relations and implementing change. The Indian principals expressed a greater need for training than the other two groups in instructional leadership, specifically in providing in-service education to the staff.

4. On leadership needs based on years of experience as a principal, it was revealed that those respondents with 1-4 years of service expressed high priority needs in two areas: Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities and Build a high level of staff morale and performance.

Principals with 5-10 years of experience expressed greater needs for additional training than the other groups in one skill: Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff.

The three areas for which principals with over 10 years of experience considered a high need priority were: Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community; Effectively manage the school budget; Help staff effectively use materials and equipment for educational programs.

The findings indicated that while those principals with the least experience expressed greater needs for additional training in the areas of decision making, and planning, those with a span of 5-10 years of experience

indicated a high priority need in the area of human relations. The most experienced administrators (over 10 years) expressed greater needs for training than the other groups in the areas of communication, finance, and facilities management.

5. On leadership needs based on size of school enrollment, it was revealed that principals of medium-sized schools (those with enrollment between 200 to 400 students) expressed greater needs for additional leadership training than principals of small (under 200 students) on large (over 400 students) schools. Three of the areas in which they indicated high need priority were: Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives; Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities; Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing.

Administrators in large schools expressed high priority needs in these areas: Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals; Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups; and Effectively manage the school budget.

One of the areas in which principals of small schools expressed greater need than the other two groups was: Provide in-service education for instructional personnel.

The findings indicated that principals of medium-

sized schools expressed a greater need for additional leadership training than principals of small and large schools. They reported high priority needs for training in the areas of goal setting, decision making, and communication. Those of large schools expressed greater needs in the areas of problem solving, human relations, and financial management. Principals of small schools expressed a higher priority need for training than the other two groups in the specific skill of providing in-service education for teachers.

6. On leadership needs based on type of school organization, it was observed that principals of secondary schools (Forms 1-5, 6 or 7) expressed a greater need for leadership training than their counterparts in junior secondary schools (Forms 1-4). They indicated high need priority in four areas: Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives; Evaluate the effectiveness of new instructional materials and systems; Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing; and Provide professional opportunities for the staff.

Two of the skills in which administrators of junior secondary schools expressed a great concern were: Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program and Develop long-range planning evaluation of school programs.

The findings indicate that principals in charge of secondary schools had more needs for additional training than principals in junior secondary schools. While both groups expressed high priority need in the area of instructional leadership, the secondary principals were highly in need of additional training in the areas of goal setting, evaluation, personal communication skills, and staff development; junior secondary principals reporting greater needs in the areas of school communication and planning.

7. On leadership needs based upon the principals' recent educational training, it was observed that those who received some educational training in the last four years expressed a greater need for additional leadership training than those who received training between 5-10 and over 10 years ago. They indicated high need priority in the following four areas: Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals; Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs; Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning; and Provide professional opportunities for the staff.

Principals who received some form of educational training over 10 years ago indicated that their high priority for training was in the skills: Effectively communicate with parents and Develop strategies to

overcome staff and community resistance to change.

The findings indicated that those principals recently involved in educational training expressed greater needs for additional leadership training than the other groups. Principals who received training within the last four years reported greater needs for training in the areas of instructional leadership, problem solving, and goal setting, while those trained over 10 years ago expressed greater needs for training in the skills of communication and implementing change.

Effective Sources of Principals' Expertise

An analysis of the data obtained from section II of the questionnaire revealed that all of the ten agencies or experiences submitted for evaluation were considered effective by the principals. Of these, On-the-Job Experience was declared the most valuable source of a principal's expertise. This was followed by Teaching Experience, Deputy-Principalship, and In-Service Training.

Sources of Assistance to Principals

The data analysis of section III of the questionnaire revealed that In-Service Training and Colleges or Universities were considered the most effective sources of assistance to principals, followed by Professional Association Meetings or Conferences. The item, Ministry of Education Programs or Activities, was

rated as the least effective of all the agencies submitted for evaluation.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from this study:

1. Effective schools are the result of the activities of effective principals who demonstrate strong instructional leadership, create positive school climate conducive to learning, and know how to manage time and people efficiently and effectively.

2. Secondary-school principals in Fiji are not satisfied with their present level of leadership expertise. Clearly a need for additional training exists.

3. The secondary-school principals in Fiji express high priority needs for additional leadership training in the skills of instructional leadership and human relations/staff development, as indicated by their first five ranked needs: (1) Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning; (2) Provide professional opportunities for the staff; (3) Build a high level of staff morale and performance; (4) Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff; and (5) Provide in-service education for instructional personnel.

4. High priority needs for additional leadership training are most often reported by (1) principals under 40 years of age; (2) principals who are Fijian; (3) principals of medium-sized schools; (4) principals of

secondary high schools; (5) principals with the most recent educational training.

5. The younger principals report a greater need for additional training than the older principals in the skills of problem-solving and evaluation.

6. The older principals express a greater need than their younger counterparts in the skill of communication.

7. Male principals express a greater need for leadership training than female principals in the skill of communication.

8. Women principals have a need for additional leadership training, greater than that of men, in the areas of goal setting and decision making.

9. The Fijian principals' need for additional leadership training in the areas of evaluation, decision making, and financial management surpasses those of the Indians and other ethnic groups.

10. The high priority need of Indian principals is in the skill of instructional leadership.

11. Principals of ethnic groups other than Fijians and Indians report high priority needs in the skills of human relations and implementing change.

12. Principals with 5-10 years of administrative experience report a high priority need for additional leadership training in the skill of human relations.

13. Principals with fewer than five years of administrative experience express high priority needs in

the skills of decision making, and planning.

14. Those principals with the most administrative experience indicate high priority needs for additional training in the skills of communication, finance, and facilities management.

15. Principals of medium-sized schools have high priority needs for training in the skills of goal setting, decision making, and communication.

16. Principals of large schools express high priority needs for training in the skills of problem solving, human relations, and financial management.

17. Principals of small schools indicate a high priority need for training in the specific skill of providing in-service education for teachers.

18. Principals who are in charge of secondary high schools express high priority needs for leadership training in the areas of goal setting, evaluation, personal communication skills, and staff development.

19. Principals in charge of junior secondary schools report high priority needs for leadership training in the skills of school communication and planning.

20. The most recently trained principals report high priority needs for additonal training in leadership expertise in the skills of instructional leadership, problem solving, and goal setting.

21. Principals who received educational training

more than 10 years ago have great concern for additional training in the skills of communication and implementing change.

22. Secondary-school principals of Fiji report that On-the-Job Experience is their most valuable source of leadership expertise.

23. In-service training and taking courses at colleges or universities are seen by the Fiji principals as potentially effective sources of assistance in improving leadership skills.

Discussion with Insights and Implications

A discussion of the major findings with insights and implications are offered here, based on the results of this study, and on the personal feelings and insights of the researcher.

The findings that Fiji secondary principals indicate their greatest need for training in the areas of instructional leadership and staff personnel development reflects their awareness of the principals' major role in school leadership, as emphasized in literature by educational authors (Austin, 1979; Dorman, Lipsitz, & Verner, 1985; Dufour & Eaker, 1987; Tursman, 1981, Weldy, 1979). These findings are similar to Asasucharit's (1983) study on secondary principals' in-service needs in Thailand. They should also be cause for concern to educational authorities. Instructional leadership and

staff development skills are concerned with quality of service and professional development that leads to greater effectiveness in the teaching-learning process.

In the context of the Fiji Islands, this area is of critical importance because of the remoteness of some schools, the presence of several untrained teachers in the profession, and the need to implement educational reforms, innovations, and developments more efficiently and successfully (Bhindi, 1988). It is important that both prospective and practicing school administrators receive adequate training in instructional leadership, and staff personnel development in order to be professionally competent to provide "on the spot" assistance and guidance on a regular basis.

It is quite likely that the high priority need of principals in the skills of instructional leadership and staff personnel development has been intensified by the present unstable political situation that exists in the country, since the military coup of 1987. The downward turn in the economy and the emigration of many well-qualified teachers and administrators have to some degree affected the operation of many schools in the country. These have resulted in lack of financial and material resources, shortage of well-qualified staff, and the recruitment of ill-prepared teachers and administrators.

By giving highest rankings for additional training to the areas of instructional leadership and staff personnel

development, the Fiji principals have demonstrated that as school administrators, they are as aware as any other educational leaders of the cruciality of these skills in accomplishing their organizational goals.

Their primary purpose in the operation of a school is to help students learn, hence, their highest ranked need--"Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning." To successfully accomplish this goal, they need to have competent staff and also to provide a creative and positive school environment conducive to maintaining a high level of morale and performance for both staff and students.

On evaluation of past sources of principals' expertise, it was revealed that On-the-Job Experience was declared the most valuable source, followed by Teaching Experience, and most valuable source, followed by Teaching Experience and Deputy-Principalship. These findings are similar to what Kramer (1973) found in his study.

The declaration by the Fiji principals that On-the-Job Experience is their most valuable source of leadership expertise is not surprising. This may be due to the lack of proper pre-service training given to principals in educational leadership, which is generally expected to be offered by colleges and universities, and perhaps, also, may indicate the inadequacy of in-service training programs to address the leadership needs of the

principals. This is confirmed by the lower rankings given to In-service Training and College or University Courses (4 and 6.5, respectively) as effective past sources of leadership expertise. This finding underscores the importance of hands-on experience and learning on the job. These could be provided for when a person serves as a deputy principal for a period of time before assuming the principalship, and through active involvement in relevant in-service training programs.

It may be noted that on evaluation of sources of assistance to principals, the Ministry of Education programs or activities received the lowest ranking. In-service training with colleges and universities following closely were considered the most effective sources of assistance. It is possible that, as in many countries where education is centrally controlled, the Fiji principals looked to the Ministry of Education mainly for administrative assistance, and for needed professional help would turn to other educational agencies such as colleges, universities, and professional associations.

Based on the findings that secondary-school principals in Fiji greatly desire additional leadership training and look to in-service training and colleges and universities as the most effective sources of assistance, there is a definite need for planned school leadership development programs. In the past, the training efforts for school administrators in Fiji have been rather

"adhocratic" in nature, i.e., based on immediate pressures and conveniences rather than on any systematic survey of needs, priorities, or plans (Bhindi, 1988). Hence, the need to have a systematic staff development program that ensures the coordination of needs and in-service activities.

Such a program could be organized and operated by members of the principal's profession from a central place. (In the United States these are called Principals' Centers; in the United Kingdom they are known as National Development Centers (NDC) for school Management). The main purpose of the center would be to maximize the effectiveness of the principals by helping them to improve their management and leadership skills. The center should play a leading role in helping schools to attain higher standards by improving school leadership, as it assists school administrators gain awareness, learn new skills, and use those skills on the job.

The need for regular in-service leadership development programs is also observed. Such a provision can be a function of the systematic staff development program which ensures that in-service training is scheduled not only at the convenience of the trainers but also of the trainees. Wherever possible, in-service training should be conducted at times and locations

convenient to the principals, with equal considerations for urban and rural school administrators.

A systematic staff development program would also ensure that the courses and programs delivered in training programs by colleges and universities, professional associations, Ministry of Education, or other agencies are based on the identified needs of school administrators. Based on the findings of this study, the appropriate courses considered by the secondary principals of Fiji are those that would enhance their leadership skills in instructional leadership, human relations, communication, decision making, evaluation, goal setting, and planning. It is important for all those responsible for both pre-service and in-service training of principals to design programs relevant to the needs of the practitioners.

The identification of in-service needs such as these requires a regular needs assessment of school administrators, preferably on an yearly basis. This is the first step that any serious agency in providing relevent in-service programs for its trainees must take in order to ensure effective results on the participants.

Linked to this, another basic factor that needs to be included in the provision of some in-service programs is the involvement of school principals in the planning and running of such activities. According to the study by Al-shagroud (1987), the best organizers of secondary-school in-service programs are university personnel and

the principals themselves. Whether it be seminars, institutes, conferences, workshops, internships, or courseworks, the principals' contribution and participation play vital parts toward the success of the programs. Principals as practitioners are important resources, and they should be involved not only as receivers but also as givers of ideas, services, and skills.

Apart from what educational instutitions and other agencies can provide by way of in-service programs, each individual principal owes it to himself/or herself to continue to develop professionally. Through study, reading, and research he/she can keep abreast with what is happening in the profession.

As the chief executive of the school, he/she is the change agent responsible for new developments and innovations in the educational environment served. Based on the specific leadership needs identified in this study, it would be profitable for the Fiji secondary principals to pursue personal studies and readings in those needed areas. Embarking on such a needed task when engaged in the busy demands of the position requires determination and self-discipline. Principals need a planned program and regular schedule for study and reading professional journals and books throughout the year. The busy principal must make time to meet professional needs if

he/she is serious about his/her work of providing effective leadership that is basic to effective schools.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on the information gathered in this study, the following recommendations and suggestions are made with the intention of improving the leadership role of secondary-school principals in Fiji.

Recommendations

1. It is recommended that educational personnel who plan for the pre-service and in-service training of principals in Fiji, design programs that are based on the identified needs of school administrators. Providing the appropriate courses and activities will ensure greater effectiveness of the programs.

2. It is recommended that regular in-service education should be arranged for secondary-school principals so they can improve their professional knowledge and skills, helping them to become more effective in their leadership role.

3. It is recommended that a minimum of one year be served as an assistant principal before anyone assumes the demanding role of the principalship. This will help the individual gain an understanding of the span of these responsibilities as well as of the procedures by which they are executed.

4. It is recommended that more opportunities and support be provided for the secondary-school principals to pursue further study and professional development activities.

5. It is recommended that a study be made on the possibility of setting up a Principals' Center that coordinates the in-service training activities of all prospective and practicing principals in Fiji. The goal of such a center would be to maximize the effectiveness of school administrators by improving or refining their management and leadership skills.

6. It is recommended that both government and non-government school authorities establish effective criteria and procedures for the selection of principals and should always strive to appoint fully qualified and competent personnel to fill the vital role of principalship in Fiji's secondary schools.

7. It is recommended that all prospective and practicing principals complete a preparation program for school leadership that provides the full range of professional knowledge and skills necessary to an effective principalship. Such preparation would include the following:

(a) Complete the bachelor's degree in a content field taught in secondary schools.

(b) Complete at least two years of successful experience as a classroom teacher.

(c) Complete a minimum of one year as deputy-principal, including attendance at sessions designed for principals' in-service training.

(d) Complete or be completing a master's degree in educational leadership.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. It is suggested that a study be conducted on the leadership behavior of secondary-school principals in Fiji.

2. It is suggested that a study be undertaken to determine the effectiveness of current programs of in-service training of secondary-school principals in Fiji

3. A study to evaluate the effectiveness of the current pre-service training programs for secondary-school principals in Fiji and other countries of the South Pacific is also suggested.

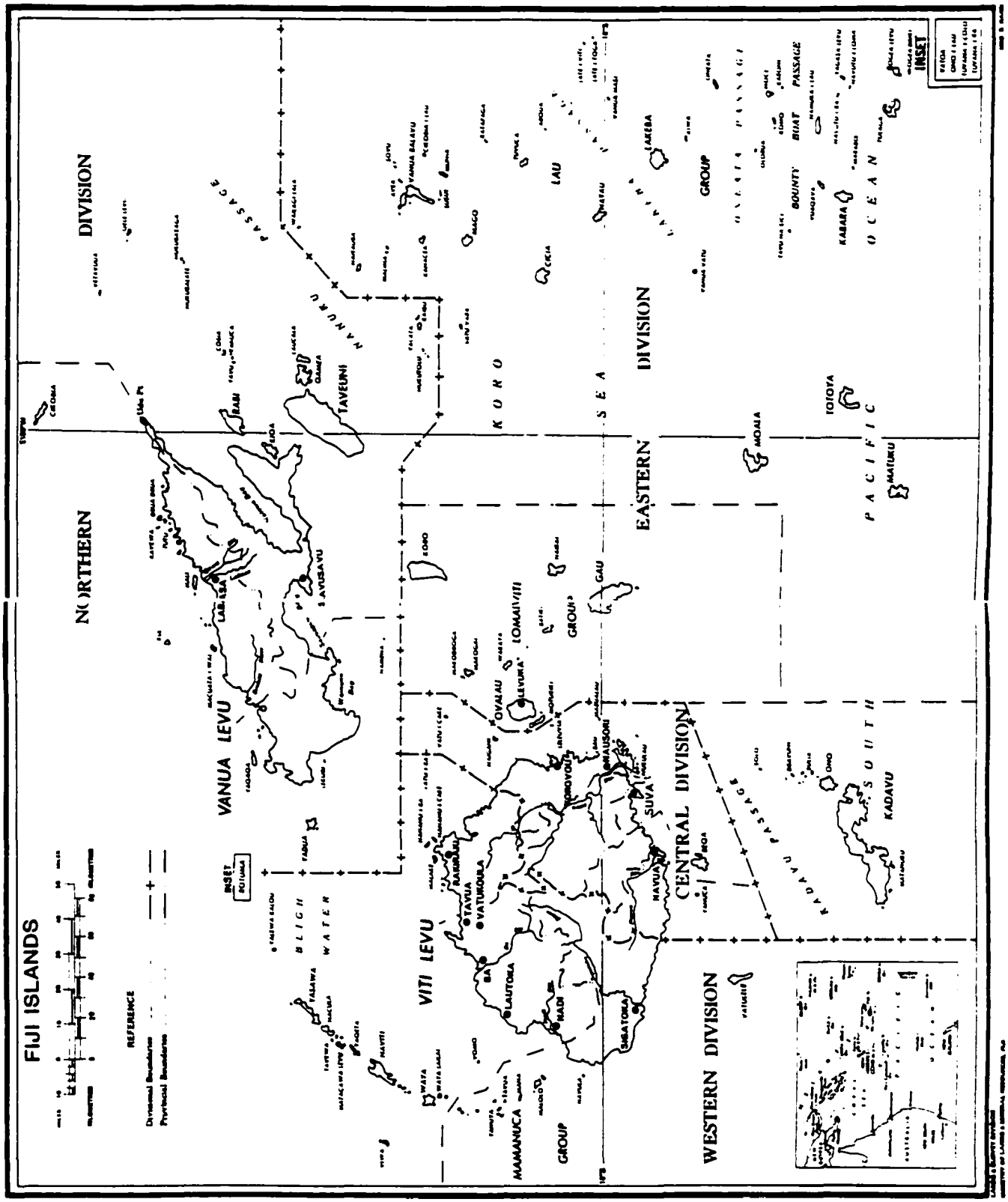
4. It is suggested that a study on the perceptions of teachers, parents, and students of the principal's role and performance be undertaken.

5. A similar study should be done to identify the leadership training needs of primary-school headteachers in Fiji.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MAP OF THE FIJI ISLANDS



APPENDIX B

LIST OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS SURVEYED

LIST OF SECONDARY AND JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Adi Cakobau School
Adi Maopa Junior Secondary School
A D Patel Memorial School
All Saints Secondary Schools
Andhra High School
Assemblies of God High school
Ballantine Memorial School
Balata High School
Ba Methodist High school
Ba Muslim College
Ba Provincial Secondary
Ba Sagam High School
Ba Sanatan College
Batinikama Junior Secondary School
Baulevu High School
Bua College
Bucalevu Secondary
Bulileka Secondary School
Bemana Cathclic School
Bhawani Dayal High
Cathedral Secondary School
Central Fijian Secondary School
Cuvu College
DAV Boys College
DAV College Ba
DAV Girls College
Delana Methodist High School
Drasa Secondary School
Dreketi Secondary School
Dudley High School
Fiji LDS Technical College
Fulton College
Fulton Junior Secondary School
Gau Junior Secondary School
Gospel High School
Holy Family Junior Secondary School
Jasper Williams High School
International Secondary School
Indian College
Kadavu Province Junior Secondary School
Khalsa College
Kavanagasau Secondary School
Koro Secondary School
Korovuto Secondary School
Labasa Arya Junior Secondary School
Labasa College
Labasa Muslim High School
Lami High School

Latianara Junior Secondary School
Laucala Bay Secondary School
Lautoka Muslim High School
Lelean Memorial School
Lekutu Secondary School
Levuka Public High School
Lomaivuna High School
Lomary Secondary School
Lomawai Secondary School
Maharishi College
Marist Brothers High School
Mahatma Gandhi High School
Mulomulo Secondary School
Nabala Junior Secondary School
Nabua Secondary School
Nadarivatu Junior Secondary School
Nadi College
Nadi Mulism High School
Nadogo Secondary School
Nadroga/Navosa Secondary School
Naikavaki Junior Secondary School
Naitasiri Junior Secondary School
Naiyala Junior Secondary School
Nakauvadra Junior Secondary School
Naleba College
Namosi Secondary School
Napuka Junior Secondary School
Nasinu Muslim Secondary School
Nasinu Secondary School
Natabua High School
Natovi Junior Secondary School
Nausori High School
Navesau Junior Secondary School
Navosa Central College
Navua High School
Nawai Junior Secondary
Nilsen High School
Niusawa Methodist High School
Nukuloa Secondary School
Penang Sangam High School
Pt. Shreedhar Maharaj College
Queen Victoria School
Ra Secondary School
Rabi Island High School
Rampur College
Rakiraki Public High School
Ratu Finau Junior Secondary School
Ratu Kadavulevu School
Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara College
Ratu Sir Lala Sukuna Memorial School
Ratu Navula Secondary School
Rewa Secondary School

Richmond Methodist High School
Rishikul High School
Sabeto Secondary School
Saint Bede's School
Saint Joseph Secondary School
Saint John College
Saint Thomas' High School
Sangam (SKM) College
Sangam (KM) High School
Saraswati College
Saqani Junior Secondary School
Savusavu Secondary School
Seaqaqa Junior Secondary School
Shri Guru Nanak Kalsa School
Shri Vivekananda High School
Sigatoka Methodist High School
Sigatoka Valley Junior Secondary School
Suva Grammer School
Suva Muslim College
Solevu Junior Secondary School
Tabia Junior Secondary School
Tailevu North High School
Tavua College
Tilak High School
Vaturova Junior Secondary School
Vishnu Deo Memorial High School
Votualevu Secondary School
Vunicibicibi Junior Secondary School
Vunimono Junior Secondary School
Vunimoli Junior Secondary School
Vunisea Secondary School
Waidina Junior Secondary School
Wainibuka Junior Secondary School
Wainimala Junior Secondary School
Wairiki Secondary School
Waiqele Junior Secondary School
Xavier College
Yasayasa Moala Junior Secondary School
Yasawa Central Memorial Junior School
Yat-sen Secondary School

APPENDIX C

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Part I. LEADERSHIP TRAINING NEEDS SURVEY

Listed below are many of the skills needed to perform the principal's leadership role. Considering the problems faced by the principal today, please give your perceptions of significant needs for leadership training.

(5 = most critical need; 1 = least critical need)

		Circle: High				Low
1.	Help staff apply new methods to meet basic skills needs in subject areas	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Utilize communication techniques to build support of public understanding for school program	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Develop channels of communication to obtain reliable feedback from the community . . .	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Utilize techniques to communicate effectively school needs to central or head office and to the public	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Help staff with the process of setting instructional goals and objectives	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Develop alternative strategies for solving problems with the intent for achieving goals	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Help staff select tools and means for assessing accomplishment of school goals .	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Develop programs that facilitate positive student social interaction	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Translate values and broad educational goals into specific operational programs	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Provide in-service education for instructional personnel	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Demonstrate knowledge about new instructional materials and systems . . .	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Effectively use techniques of teacher and staff evaluation	5	4	3	2	1

13.	Help community establish criteria for evaluating school effectiveness (accountability)	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Evaluate the effectiveness of new instructional materials and systems . . .	5	4	3	2	1
15.	Develop the skills and procedures for establishing priorities	5	4	3	2	1
16.	Utilize techniques to obtain a highly competent staff	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Develop criteria to select appropriate innovation to meet identified needs . . .	5	4	3	2	1
18.	Help staff increase skills in solving problems students have with learning . . .	5	4	3	2	1
19.	Facilitate harmonious relationships between cultural and racial student groups	5	4	3	2	1
20.	Build a high level of staff morale and performance	5	4	3	2	1
21.	Develop long range planning evaluation of school programs	5	4	3	2	1
22.	Help staff construct and use tests for evaluation of academic programs . . .	5	4	3	2	1
23.	Develop procedures for involving staff in decision-making	5	4	3	2	1
24.	Stimulate staff to try new ideas	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Utilize strategies for implementing change and innovation	5	4	3	2	1
26.	Effectively communicate with parents . .	5	4	3	2	1
27.	Develop strategies to overcome staff and community resistance to change	5	4	3	2	1
28.	Improve personal skills of public speaking, persuasion, and writing	5	4	3	2	1
29.	Provide professional opportunities for the staff	5	4	3	2	1
30.	Develop skills to resolve disagreements involving students, staff, and parents .	5	4	3	2	1
31.	Effectively manage the school budget . . .	5	4	3	2	1
32.	Help staff effectively use materials and equipment for educational programs	5	4	3	2	1
33.	Manage an effective students recruitment program	5	4	3	2	1

Part II. PAST SOURCES OF LEADERSHIP EXPERTISE

Please evaluate the relative effectiveness of the following experiences or agencies in contributing to your present level of expertise as an educational leader.

(5=most effective; 1=least effective; LI=lack information to judge)

		Circle: High				Low	
34.	Administrative Internship	5	4	3	2	1	LI
35.	College or University Courses	5	4	3	2	1	LI
36.	Conferences or Conventions	5	4	3	2	1	LI
37.	In-Service Training	5	4	3	2	1	LI
38.	Independent Study	5	4	3	2	1	LI
39.	Experiences other than in Education (e.g. Religion, Military, Business). . . .	5	4	3	2	1	LI
40.	On-the-Job Experience	5	4	3	2	1	LI
41.	Rap Sessions with Colleagues	5	4	3	2	1	LI
42.	Teaching Experience	5	4	3	2	1	LI
43.	Deputy-Principalship	5	4	3	2	1	LI
44.	Other: ----------	5	4	3	2	1	LI
45.	Other: ----------	5	4	3	2	1	LI

Part III. SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE

Please evaluate the following agencies or programs as to relative effectiveness as sources of assistance to improve your expertise as an educational leader.

(5=most effective; 1=least effective; LI=lack information to judge)

		Circle High				Low	
46.	Colleges or Universities	5	4	3	2	1	LI
47.	In-Service Training	5	4	3	2	1	LI
48.	Professional Association Meetings or Conferences	5	4	3	2	1	LI
49.	Ministry of Education Programs or Activities	5	4	3	2	1	LI
50.	Other: ----------	5	4	3	2	1	LI
51.	Other: ----------	5	4	3	2	1	LI

Part IV. PLEASE CHECK (✓) THE FOLLOWING:

52. Age:

---- Under 30
---- 31-40
---- Over 40

53. Sex:

---- Male
---- Female

54. Nationality:

---- Fijian
---- Indian
---- Other

55. Experience as a Principal:

---- 1 - 4 years
---- 5 - 10 years
---- Over 10 years

56. School Size: Enrollment

---- Under 200
---- 201 - 400
---- Over 400

57. School Organization Most Similar to:

---- Junior Secondary School (Forms 1-4)
---- Secondary School (Forms 1-5, 6 or 7)

58. Your Most Recent Training: (Degree, Credential/ Certification)

---- Within last 4 years
---- 5 - 10 years ago
---- Over 10 years ago

59. Your Bachelors Degree/Diploma was in:

---- Education
---- English
---- Math
---- Physical Education
---- Psychology
---- Science (Phys/Biol)
---- Social Sciences
---- ----------

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY

ALL COMMUNICATIONS TO BE ADDRESSED TO THE PERMANENT SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION AND NOT TO INDIVIDUAL OFFICERS.

IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE:

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION,
MARELA HOUSE,
SUVA, FIJI.

REF. NO.: E24/63

DATE: 30.3.89

To Whom It May Concern

Mr Nemani W Tausere

Research in Secondary Schools in Fiji

This is to certify that Mr Nemani W Tausere, who is a citizen of Fiji and who is a doctoral student studying for a PhD. in Educational Administration at Andrews University, Michigan, USA, has the approval of the Ministry of Education to conduct research in secondary schools in Fiji on leadership training needs.

I would appreciate it very much if principals of secondary schools would give every possible assistance to Mr Tausere to facilitate his research.

The subject of the prooosed research is of great relevance to Fiji and its findings can be expected to facilitate the planning of the development of education in the future.

Hari Ram

Hari Ram
Permanent Secretary for Education.

APPENDIX E

COVERING LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

ANDREWS
UNIVERSITY

600 Beechwood Apt. G.50
Berrien Springs
Michigan 49103, U.S.A.

March 30, 1989.

Dear Principals:

I am a doctoral student studying at Andrews University in the United States. The enclosed questionnaire is part of my research project on the leadership training needs of secondary school principals in Fiji. The main purpose of this study is to gather information about specific areas of need as determined by the principals.

If the profession is to develop programmes which will help principals to improve their expertise, then their unique insights are obviously of prime importance. This study will present the principal's point of view.

I will be very grateful if you will take the short time needed to give me your perceptions and return this questionnaire at your earliest opportunity in the envelope provided.

Your answers will be kept strictly confidential. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Nemani W. Tausere
Ph.D. Candidate
Andrews University
Berrien Springs, MI 49103

Approved:

Dr. Edward A. Streeter
Professor of Educational Administration
Andrews University, Michigan
Committee Chairman.

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VITA

NAME: Nemani Wapole Tausere

DATE OF BIRTH: November 5, 1948

PLACE OF BIRTH: Tailevu, Fiji Islands

FAMILY: Wife: Francoise Angele Tausere
Son: John W. Tausere

EDUCATION:

1980	M.A. Educational Administration and Supervision Philippine Union College, Manila
1973	B.A. Education Avondale College, N.S.W. Australia

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

1987-88	Graduate Assistant, Department of Educational Administration and Supervision Andrews University
1985-86	Director of Student Services, and Lecturer, Department of Education Pacific Adventist College, Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea
1984	Lecturer, Department of Humanities, Pacific Adventist College Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea
1983	Education Director Seventh-day Adventist Church, Fiji
1980-83	Principal Vatuvonu Junior Secondary School Buca Bay, Fiji
1978	Principal Beulah College, Tonga
1976-77	Deputy Principal and Teacher Beulah College, Tonga
1975-76	Registrar and Teacher Fulton College, Fiji
1974	Teacher Fulton College, Fiji